The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TODAY'S EDUCATION

September-October 1976

THE SEVEN CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REVISITED

—a Bicentennial Project

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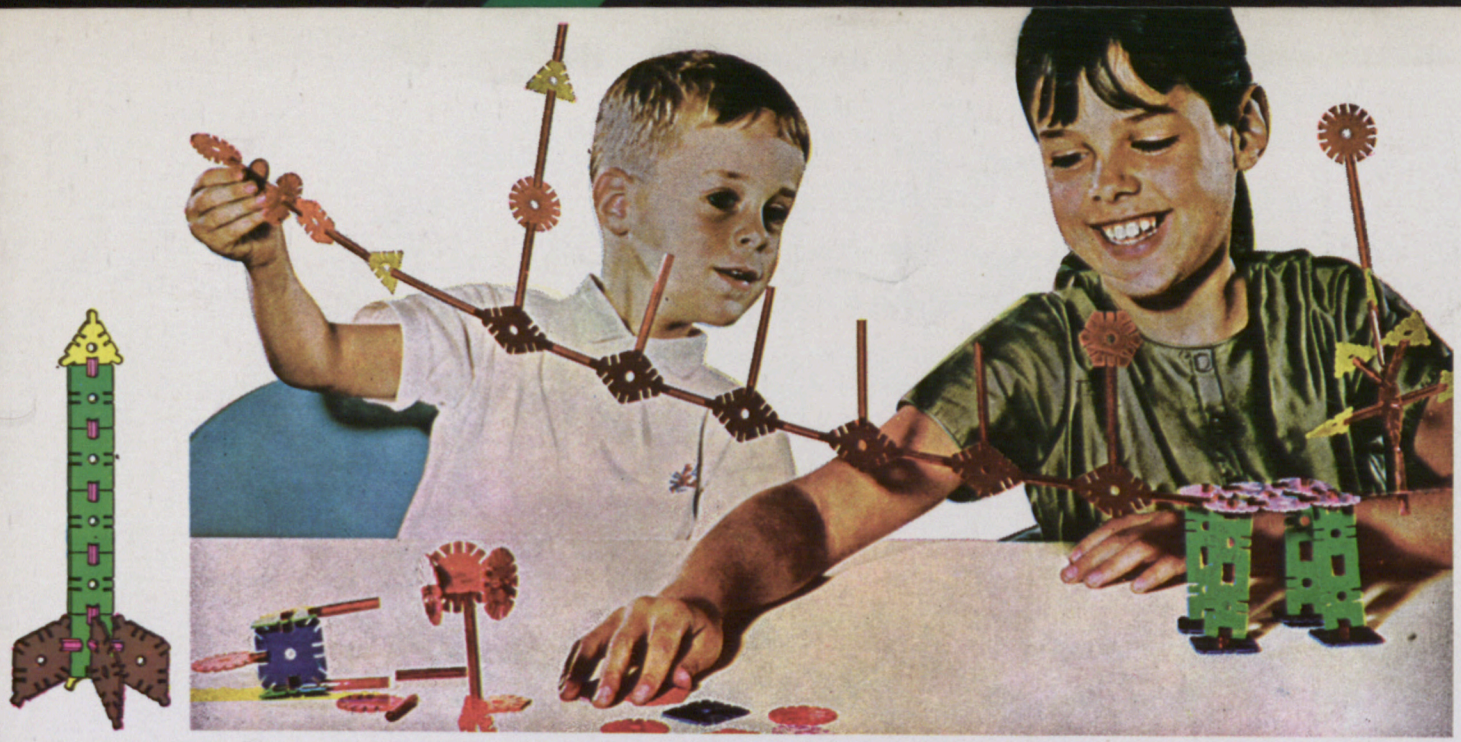

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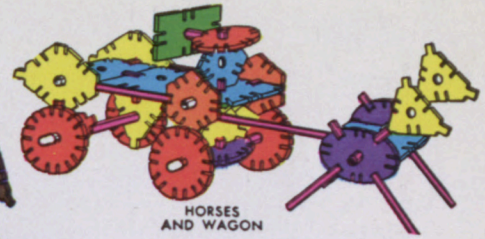

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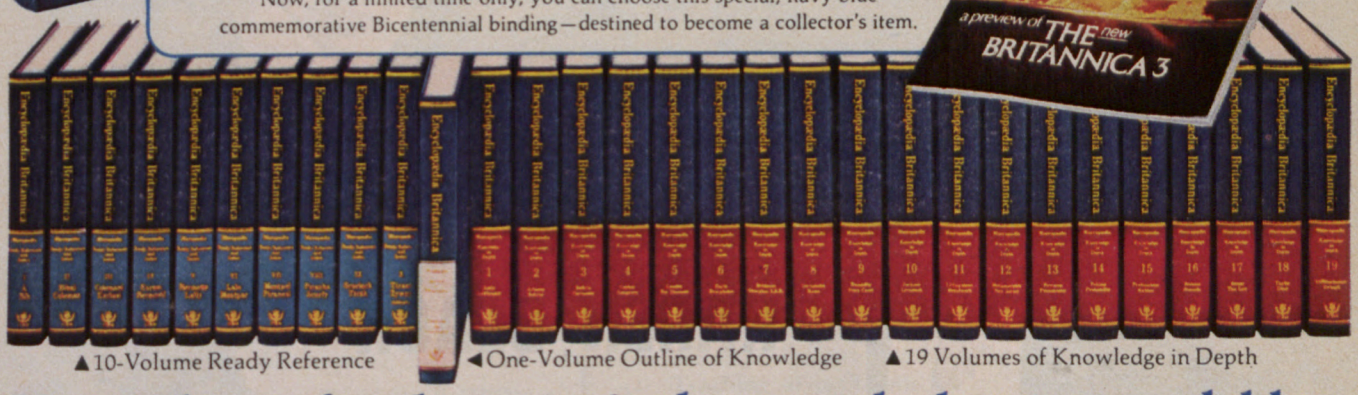

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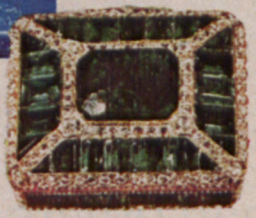

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IN THIS ISSUE

People helping people. Especially teachers helping teachers. That's what this issue of *Today's Education* and the other issues, too, are all about.

Some 30 teachers and others in addition to our small staff contributed articles and regular columns to this issue. (This number doesn't include all the contributors to "Letters" and "Classroom Tips.")

Frankly, we planned to carry photos of the article authors on this page, but space would not permit. Let us assure you, however, that all of our authors are beautiful people—in more ways than one.

Since this is the bicentennial year, we then decided to carry photos of three of the many bicentennial people who have contributed to this issue: Professor Harold G. Shane of Indiana University; English Teacher Julia Moore Rackleff of Tulsa, Oklahoma; and Third Grader Tracy Ann O'Boyle of Setauket, New York.

Professor Shane was coordinator of the NEA Bicentennial Project to re-examine the goals of education, and a 16-page insert on colored paper representing that project—"The Seven Cardinal Principles Revisited"—appears on pages 57-72.

Some of the names of the many people involved in that project are listed on the cover as a decorative background. (Their names are also printed on page 72.)

Based on taped interviews with some 50 teachers and other leaders, the insert is a small part of the full report of the project, which the NEA will publish in book form soon. The interviewed panelists agree that the famous seven cardinal principles still have validity, and they discuss how the principles should be interpreted today in light of changed times.

The second bicentennial person pictured, Julia Moore Rackleff, is the $1,000 first-prize winner in the NEA Bicentennial Essay Contest. Her winning essay, "People Who Need People," is the lead article in this issue.

In her essay, Ms. Rackleff states that "Although man spends a lifetime trying to achieve and maintain his independence, he is most happy in his associations with other people. He wants to share with other human beings his joys, his sorrows, his time, his money, his thoughts." She concludes that man is "a solitary-social who believes that people who need people are indeed fortunate."

Our third bicentennial person pictured on this page, Tracy Ann O'Boyle, carried out this idea of interdependence in her own art form. She won first prize in the New York State competition of the student contest with the theme "My America—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow." A full-color reproduction of her felt wall hanging brightens page 22 and appropriately illustrates Ms. Rackleff's essay, which starts on page 23.

What about the other beautiful people—classroom teachers, professors, students—who have contributed to this issue? Through their articles we hope they are "helping teachers teach." In their writing, they deal with many issues in education today and/or they tell about current school practices and/or the latest thinking about teaching and learning and about young people. Here are some quick glimpses at some of their articles:

- "Teaching for Thinking: A Piagetian Perspective." How understanding key aspects of Piaget's theory can help teachers help students develop formal reasoning patterns.
- "Success Story of an Inner-City School." How the leadership of an imaginative principal and staff and the cooperation of parents and community workers brought about phenomenal improvements in the Simon Gratz High School in North Philadelphia.
- "Where Have All the Innovations Gone?" A review by the dean of education reporters of many of the educational innovations of recent years and an explanation of what has happened to them.
- "Turning Students On to Active Citizenship." Describes how the Institute for Political and Legal Education works. An exciting new curriculum in secondary social studies that stimulates students to active participation in community and political affairs.
- "Classroom Discipline." Some ways of responding to students which leave everyone feeling good and yet leave the teacher in command; other ways of responding which leave the whole class feeling that the teacher is unfriendly, arbitrary, or "out of it."
- "Students' Learning Styles." Different cognitive or learning styles in youngsters—how to identify them, develop them, and promote greater learning thereby.

This is the largest issue of *Today's Education* ever published—128 pages—16 pages longer than recent previous issues. To put this issue out, we needed lots of help, as we've indicated.

But 'twas ever thus. Every issue of the magazine requires dozens of authors, consultants, suppliers—and the ideas and suggestions of many NEA members.

Over the past 20 years, your magazine has won more than 30 educational journalism awards. But we editors obviously didn't do it alone. We are "people who need people" too. So continue to send us your ideas, reactions, and manuscripts, and your magazine will continue to help teachers teach.

—WAG.

TRENDS

Recent Supreme Court Decisions Affect Teacher Rights

As the result of two recent Supreme Court decisions, teachers and their associations will rely less than before on the federal government for protection of their rights to due process and collective bargaining. The Court has restricted federal regulation of state and local government employment practices and supported school boards' authority to fire striking teachers.

In its decision in *National League of Cities* v. *Usery*, the Court held that there are constitutional limitations on the extent to which Congress can regulate the way states make decisions about conducting their governments, including their relations with their employees. Specifically, it declared the 1974 Amendments to the Fair Labor Standards Act, extending federal minimum wage and maximum hour protection to most state and municipal employees, to be unconstitutional. Although the Amendments did not cover teachers and the opinion did not refer expressly to collective bargaining, the NEA Office of General Counsel said that the decision would appear to render unconstitutional the type of federal collective bargaining statute that has to date been urged by the NEA. And while noting that the decision left open several questions regarding the precise role that Congress might play in the effort to secure collective bargaining rights for teachers, the Office stated that the focus of that effort must shift at least for the present from the federal to the state level.

In another decision, the Court ruled that in firing striking teachers, the Hortonville, Wisconsin, school board did not violate their due process right under the Fourteenth Amendment to an impartial decision maker. The Court rejected the argument that the board's prior involvement in collective bargaining negotiations stripped it of the requisite impartiality.

The NEA Office of General Counsel noted that the ruling leaves open the question whether, in a state where state law requires the board's decision to be reasonable, a school board can impartially sit on the issue of whether it acted in bad faith during negotiations, and, if so, whether this justified the strike or warranted mitigation of the penalty. The Office also stressed that the decision suggests the importance of increased efforts to protect teachers' due process rights through collective bargaining agreements and state laws.

Moving On: Who? Where?

Nearly half of the almost 71 million U.S. households moved between April 1970 and October 1974, say the Bureau of the Census and the Department of Housing and Urban Development. During the last year of that period, more than a fourth of the households that moved had new heads because of divorce or death or were new—young people just leaving home or newly married couples. Most of the rest moved within or between metropolitan areas.

More than a fourth of the households in the West moved during that year, but fewer than 1 household in 6 in the Northeast.

Arts Learning Program Begins in Kennedy Center

A National Aesthetic Education Learning Center is opening this fall in the John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, DC. The Center will combine in-service training for teachers and administrators with comprehensive arts education for elementary pupils as it explores ways to improve general education by using arts resources. This year, it will work with four schools in the Washington, DC, area.

Centers are already in operation in New York, Tennessee, Illinois, California, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Colorado, and Nevada. The Center, funded by the National Institute of Education (NIE), is a joint project of NIE; CEMREL, Inc., a regional educational laboratory; and the Kennedy Center's Alliance for Arts Education.

For information about the Centers, write to Bernard S. Rosenblatt, 3120 59th St., St. Louis 63139.

Elementary and Secondary Enrollment: End of Decline Is in Sight

Even though the U.S. birthrate is expected to continue at low levels, the Bureau of the Census anticipates an increase in the absolute number of births toward the end of the 1970's. The reason for the rise—which will cause gradual increases in elementary school enrollments starting in the mid-1980's—is an increase in the number of women of childbearing age.

Increase in the Abuse of Some Drugs Slows

The ninth annual survey of student drug use in San Mateo County, California, shows that this year's median eleventh grade boy had used alcohol less often than last year's had (25 times v. 26 times), but this year's median eleventh grade girl had used it slightly more often (18 times v. 17 times).

In seventh through twelfth grades, more girls and fewer boys are using tobacco than two years ago. Students have become slightly less likely to make extensive use of any of the substances studied. The survey report stresses, however, that levels of use remain dangerously high.

Market for College Graduates To Grow

Professional and technical occupations that usually require a college degree will be among the

fastest-growing job categories—increasing by nearly 30 percent—between 1974 and 1985. So says the Labor Department in its latest *Occupational Outlook Handbook*. Meanwhile, 77 percent of employees with at least four years of college have a professional, technical, or managerial job. And, at the peak of the recent recession, college graduates were only a third as likely to be unemployed as high school graduates.

Difference Grows Between Women's and Men's Life Expectancies

A woman born in 1973 can expect to live 75.3 years—exactly 27 years longer than her great grandmother born in 1900. During the same period, a man's life expectancy increased from 46.3 to 67.6 years. The difference has thus increased from just two years to almost eight years, according to figures from the Bureau of the Census.

"Who?" Not "What?" Becomes Issue in Curriculum Development

The Curriculum Development Task Force of the National Institute of Education has reported on its study of educators' and laypersons' ideas about curriculum. People care about what is in the school program, the report concludes, but at this time care more about who makes the decisions and on what basis.

NIE invites anyone who is interested to read the report and to send in reactions and recommendations. The report is available from Jon Schaffarzick, chairman, NIE Curriculum Development Task Force, 1200 19th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20208.

College Costs Climb

The total cost of going to college is from 5 to 9 percent higher this year than last, says the College Scholarship Service of the College Entrance Examination Board. The Service surveyed costs of tuition and fees, books and supplies, room and board, personal expenses, and transportation.

Expenses for commuter students at private two- and four-year colleges rose the least; those for residential students at private two-year colleges, the most. Commuters at private two-year colleges are now paying 96 percent more than in 1970-71, however.

Young People Place Confidence in Education

A Gallup Poll of 18- to 29-year-olds taken in the Dayton, Ohio, area this year found that 66 percent have considerable confidence in education and only 12 percent have very little or none. Considerable confidence in the future of the United States (59 percent), business and industry (48 percent), the military (42 percent), and free enterprise (32 percent) followed. The survey area is considered typical of U.S. public opinion.

U.S. Young People Getting No Fitter

HEW reports that young people's scores on fitness tests have changed little in the last 10 years. Scores on the tests, given to 10- to 17-year-olds, had improved significantly between 1958 and 1965. (The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation developed the tests.)

An Office of Education physical education specialist discounts the idea that young people are as fit as they can get; rather, he says, fitness can increase with emphasis on vigorous physical education programs.

Decline in Admissions Test Scores Analyzed

The American College Testing Program has analyzed declining admissions test scores and found support for two explanations: More students are going on to college, and their preparation is less rigorous. Girls' scores have fallen more because a higher proportion of girls are going to college now.

Scores on ACT's natural sciences tests have risen; those on the social sciences test have fallen furthest.

"Way Out Games" Premieres on CBS-TV in September

Six-member teams of junior high/middle school youngsters from every state and Puerto Rico will take part in *Way Out Games*, a new CBS-TV series starting in September. The 26 shows are being taped at Magic Mountain in Valencia, California. Teams come from schools which last year had the largest percentage of students receiving the Presidential Physical Fitness Award in their states.

The games require individual and team effort, quick thinking, and physical agility. They are fun-type activities—takeoffs on sports such as skiing or soccer with specially designed costumes, facilities, and rules. Emphasis is high on fun, low key on competition.

The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation is cooperating with the program by naming teams and approving events for appropriateness and safety. For further information, write WOG/AAHPER, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

AEW Set for November 14-20

"The Schools Are Yours. Help Take Care of Them" is the theme of this year's American Education Week (AEW), to be held November 14-20. The four cosponsors of AEW are NEA, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Legion, and the U.S. Office of Education.

For information about ordering materials on AEW, write promptly to American Education Week, Academic Building, Saw Mill Road, West Haven, CT 06516. □

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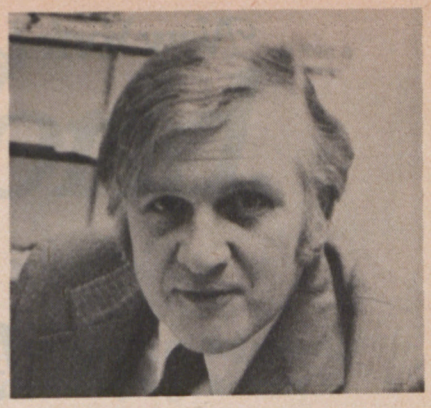

Francis Gemme, a Founder of the Institute of Children's Literature, is the President and Publisher of *Gallery Books* and former President of Young Reader's Press.

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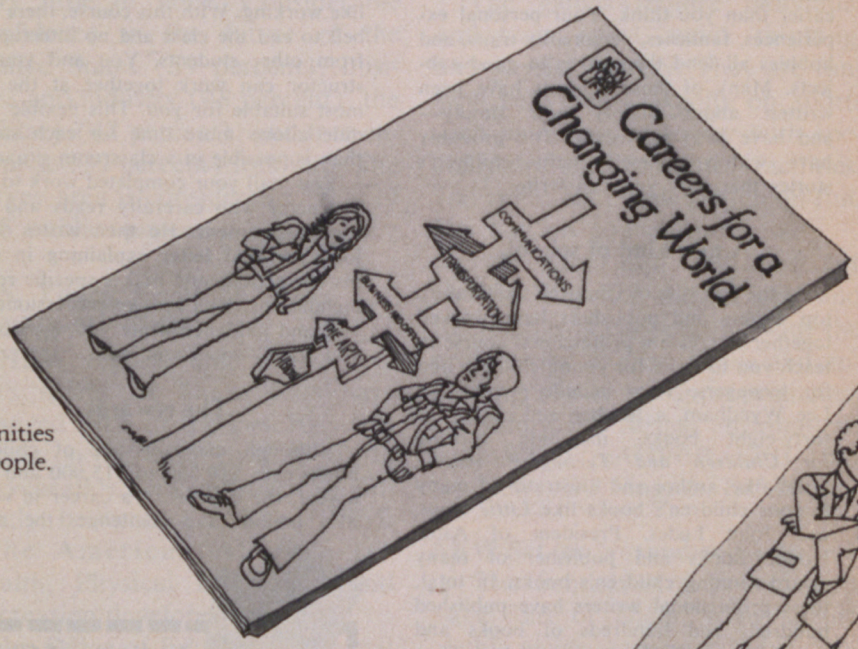

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EDITORIAL

Education for a Global Community

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

Using the theme "Education for a Global Community," the NEA Bicentennial Committee has speculated about the next 100 years.

But it did not look into the future without a sense of history. The Committee suggested activities during this 200th anniversary that highlight our nation's rich heritage, with the hope that Americans will honor, cherish, and profit from their inheritance.

The historical landmarks of the past have undergirded the NEA Bicentennial program. It has been based on the belief that independence today requires efforts to maintain our own integrity and uniqueness in an interdependent world, while respecting the integrity and special character of other nations and peoples.

I believe most persons of goodwill support these concepts. However, a few columnists, editorial writers, broadcasters, and writers of letters-to-the-editor have disparaged the program because it acknowledges world interdependence.

But most people have applauded our efforts. The head of the American Revolution Bicentennial Administration termed the NEA program "the most far-reaching and most comprehensive . . . we have received to date." A West Virginia newspaper commended NEA editorially for seeking solutions to problems that trouble our nation and the world, noting that the Association, in a Declaration of Interdependence, contends that "education can be a vehicle through which peace and the principles of the American Revolution —life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—may become the guidelines for human relationships on our planet."

NEA's Bicentennial program speaks to an immutable *reality* and to a compassionate *hope*.

The *reality* is that, like it or not, we already live in an interdependent world. Nations are tied together inextricably by rapid globe-girdling transportation and communication. The depletion of natural resources, problems with food supply, air and water pollution, and international trade are but a few major concerns that affect peoples everywhere. No man or woman—and in the 1970's, certainly no nation—is an island.

Because NEA Bicentennial planners believe that educators around the world are in a unique position to bring about—or at least help bring about—a harmonious interdependent global community founded on justice and peace, they proposed updating the widely quoted Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, streamlining them for the twenty-first century. (See special insert beginning on page 57 of this issue.) Interestingly, even the 58-year-old original principles point to the "interdependence of men." They implore Americans to try to understand the ideals and aspirations of other nations. Pupils, educators are reminded, should learn that each nation can contribute to civilization and that humanity would be incomplete without that contribution.

An NEA Bicentennial Panel found that the principles are still basically sound but inadequate for America's third century—a century which, at its launching, features worldwide satellite communication and supersonic transportation. Individual Panel members underscored the global viewpoint. However, in none of the pleas for extending our horizons did they imply that we should forfeit pride in our own nation nor neglect our rich heritage.

The NEA Bicentennial program also addresses that elusive *hope* for humankind, world peace. It encourages teachers to explore with their students how America could play a positive role in today's world to assure the preservation and fulfillment of the ideas of human dignity and justice that motivated our founding fathers.

NEA Bicentennial references to peace studies triggered some criticisms by a few groups and individuals. Is peace an undesirable goal in a nuclear age when war could be global holocaust? Perhaps no theme is more important on this planet than the search for harmony and peace.

NEA Bicentennial planners did not pretend that there is a clearly marked, singular path to peace. But one prominent theme stressed the urgent need for development of ethical character, including a regard for other peoples. In 1918, the authors of the Cardinal Principles declared that "in a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the [seven] objectives." In 1976, NEA panelists contended that development of ethical character may be even more important now if we are to improve our country's moral posture and its world leadership.

Many of you have unusual opportunities to practice the skills of global harmony. Boys and girls bring to school a variety of languages and cultural backgrounds. They present a microcosm of the world. By helping them to work together and to respect one another, you may be making a special contribution to "Education for a Global Community." □

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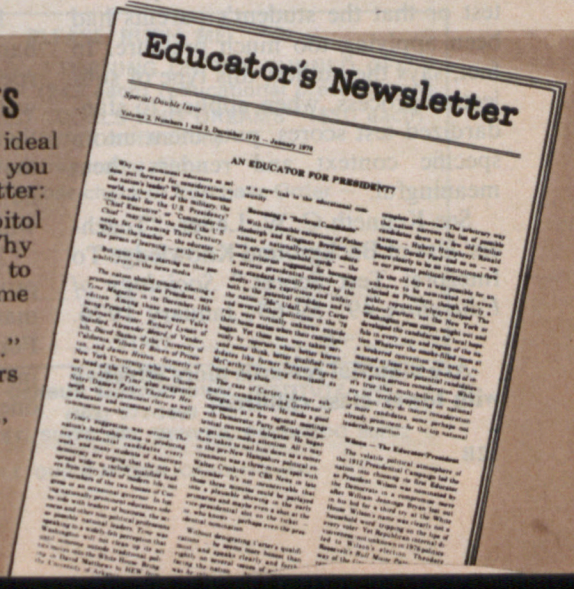

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 32

RESEARCH CLUES

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Public Information Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.

Findings like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his or her results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

Do standardized tests guarantee "objective" evaluation of students?

No, the teacher's use of subjective knowledge is the prime factor in student evaluation. According to this interview-study, researchers think standardized test scores are unambiguous and definitive. Teachers, however, don't view these test scores in the same light.

Before evaluating students on the basis of the test scores (to decide, say, on grade promotion), teachers apply their background knowledge extensively, and their knowledge tempers their judgment. For example, a student may have a low score on a standardized test, but the teacher will consider extenuating circumstances—that the student was restless on the day of the test or that the student's parents had been applying too much pressure. In fact, says the author, this type of subjective process, when applied to standardized test scores, puts them into a specific context and renders them meaningful.

See Kenneth C. W. Leiter. "Teachers' Use of Background Knowledge To Interpret Test Scores." *Sociology of Education* 49: 59-65; January 1976.

Are material rewards more effective with lower-class children?

A common educational research hypothesis is that lower-class children will be more motivated by material rewards than will middle-class children because the former are at a lower level of development than the latter. The hypothesis is often taken as a "given" by researchers, who cite a number of studies for support.

But this hypothesis is unproved and, according to these authors, probably isn't true at all. Of about 60 studies, most of them conducted within the past decade, some did support the hypothesis, but most did not. It looks like another case of a notion that sounds feasible and therefore, on the basis of a few selected studies, is assumed to be true.

The authors cite a statement by two researchers that applies to the implications for teachers: The type of reward (material, social, or feedback) that will best motivate a student depends on the individual student.

See Charles B. Schultz and Roger H. Sherman. "Social Class, Development, and Differences in Reinforcer Effectiveness." *Review of Educational Research* 46: 25-59; Winter 1976.

What generalizations seem true about the way handicapped children learn?

With mainstreaming becoming a reality, teachers are facing the problem of how best to help exceptional children learn. This author presents a series of generalizations about how handicapped children learn, based on his review of experimental laboratory studies.

1. The performance of the mildly handicapped student seems to be task specific, that is, the child may do as well as anyone else on some tasks but then have trouble with others. Until the teacher attempts to teach a task, he or she can't assume that the child will do poorly on it.

2. The mildly retarded seem to improve their verbal learning performance through "distributed practice." For example, in distributed practice, instead of having the student practice one task for a solid hour, the teacher gives four 15-minute practice sessions over a period of a day or even several days.

3. Mildly retarded, behavior disordered, and learning disabled children seem to have a lot of difficulty in the early stage of the learning process—that is, in grasping the correct response to newly presented information and skills. Once they learn the response, however, the mildly handicapped appear to retain it as well as the nonhandicapped. By using underlining, visual exaggeration, and color cues, teachers can get the initial learning across to the mildly handicapped student more quickly.

4. Mentally retarded students do not spontaneously apply learning strategies, thus the teacher needs to impart not only skills and information but also learning strategies for the students to use. The author suggests teaching such strategies as rehearsing (vocal or silent repetition), creating acronyms (memorizing BART in order to remember Bay Area Rapid Transit), and creating mental images associated with information to be remembered. Teachers should give handicapped students the opportunity to learn and practice these strategies.

See Herbert J. Prehm. "Learning Performance of Handicapped Students." *The High School Journal* 59: 275-81; April 1976.

Can immediate feedback of performance results increase learning?

Definitely. In this study of 1,400 fifth and sixth graders taking multiple-choice tests, one-third got total immediate feedback, one-third got partial immediate feedback, and the other third got no feedback. On a follow-up test, the first group scored significantly higher than the last group.

Some interactions occurred. Low ability groups did best with total immediate feedback, while high ability groups did best with partial immediate feedback. While boys who received no feedback did significantly worse than boys who received feedback, the girls' performance was not significantly different.

RESEARCH CLUES
(Continued)

Implications for the teacher are plain: Immediate feedback is important to some students' learning. Quick scoring of quizzes and tests and quick responses to written work and projects may be difficult, but they are conducive to student learning.

See Gerald S. Hanna. "Effect of Total and Partial Feedback in Multiple-Choice Testing upon Learning." *The Journal of Educational Research* 69: 202-205; Fall 1975.

Are material rewards more motivating than social rewards?

Yes, to the fourth graders in this study. Children who were offered material rewards (toys, coloring books, special pencils) learned significantly more spelling words over a four-week period than did those who were offered social incentives only (good grades and teacher congratulations). Pupils received a reward if they scored higher on Friday's test than they did on Monday's pretest.

An interesting sidelight: Some pupils quickly realized that by deliberately doing poorly on the pretest, they could easily improve on the posttest.

See Martin L. Benowitz and Thomas V. Busse. "Effects of Material Incentives on Classroom Learning over a Four-Week Period." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 68: 57-62; No. 1, 1976.

Why are achievement test scores declining?

After showing that achievement test scores are declining, this research report searches for explanations. Those it offers include the changing composition of students in classrooms (for example, more low achievers are staying in school longer); the decline of pupils' average daily attendance; the decline the authors say they have documented in the proportion of students enrolled in academic courses (which they think is the likeliest explanation); a decline in pupil motivation (they found no real evidence for this); changing teacher characteristics (no evidence).

The authors point out that schools will probably return to traditional learning, move away from educational "frills," and take a more authoritarian stance toward directing student learning as remedial actions for the decline.

See Annegret Harnischfeger and David E. Wiley. "Achievement Test Score Decline: Do We Need To Worry?" CEMREL, Inc., 1976.

Do student athletes have better self-concepts than other students?

No. This study of male and female high school and college athletes found that they tend to have worse than average concepts of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, familial self, and social self.

Our society has a way of assuming that athletes are well-adjusted, self-assured, all-around personalities.

See Hilmi Ilbrahim and Nettie Morrison. "Self-Actualization and Self-Concept Among Athletes. *Research Quarterly* 47: 69-79; March, 1976. ☐

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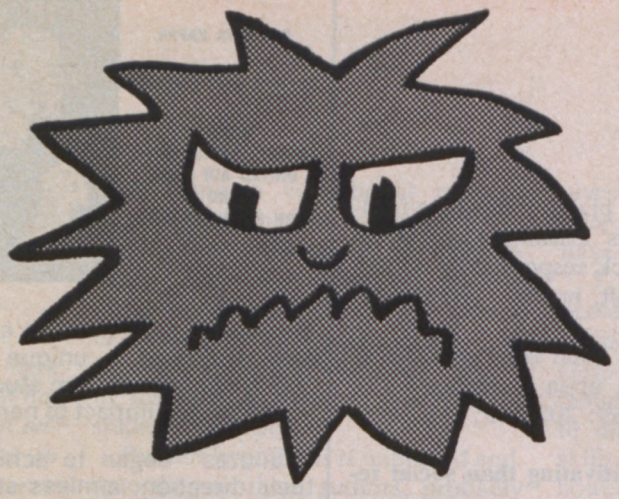

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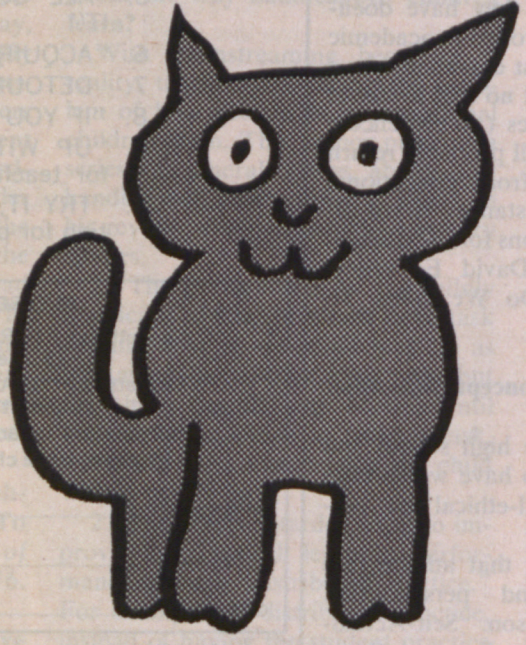

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 44

LETTERS

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Reading, Reading, Reading

I would suggest that you double-check your claim that Elizabeth Forell's article ("No Easy Cure for Reading Disabilities," March-April) runs counter to widely held assumptions about the teaching of reading.

I've been involved in a federally funded Title I reading program for the last 10 years, and I find myself in almost complete agreement with the article. Rarely do I see a student who makes exceptional progress.

—Jim Jaggers, *Title I Reading Specialist, Ogden Junior High School, Oregon City, Oregon.*

We are not sure what Dr. Haberman means when he writes about "the reading movement" ("The Reading Movement Has Gone Too Far," March-April), but we do agree with him that reading is not a subject that should be taught in a given block of time.

We also agree that overemphasis on reading as a subject stifles many students' feelings about reading.

We definitely concur that the reading specialists should be taken out of the isolation of the reading room. They should help overworked classroom teachers develop programs for the advanced learner as well as for the slower learner. To borrow the theme on the cover of the March-April issue, reading specialists should be "mainstreamed" into all classrooms, serving all teachers and all children.

—Naomi Jacoby *and* Judy Cuomo, *reading specialists, Wood-Ridge, New Jersey.*

Martin Haberman's article is irresponsible journalism. He generalizes, does not cite data to support his claims, and uses a magazine with circulation in the thousands to make points with little if any validity or basis in fact.

Perhaps Dr. Haberman's full speech is more germane and specific. The editors of *Today's Education* have done a disservice to reading people to publish such a broad criticism with no supporting evidence.

—Peter Lebetkin, *reading specialist, Farmington (Connecticut) High School.*

I would like to address myself to only one of the seven "undesirable attributes" of the current emphasis on formal reading which Dr. Haberman cites. He claims that "the overemphasis on formal reading instruction is turning large numbers of youngsters off reading."

I feel he is not describing "formal reading" programs accurately. A formal reading program provides an avenue of reading enjoyment that would not ordinarily be open to the poor reader. When youngsters discover that they are able to read, understand, and enjoy a story in one session, they are not turning off to reading. Rather, they are discovering that reading can be a comfortable experience.

This is an important consideration, because youngsters who do not read well are not likely to explore the world of reading materials on their own. To leave this discovery and exploration to chance is truly unfair.

—Ann Foster, *reading teacher, Boltz Junior High School, Ft. Collins, Colorado.*

For two years I was an elementary teacher in an inner-city school. I had two classes, each three hours a day. During those three hours, I was supposed to spend two hours in formal reading (one hour in a programmed reading course, one hour in "basal" reading). The remaining hour was devoted to other language arts and social studies.

Both the programmed reading and "basal" reading were highly structured: three groups, each spending 20 minutes in "program text" or "basal reader," 20 minutes in prescribed "independent follow-up activities," 20 minutes in "teacher-made games." I had an average of about 25 in each class, with reading levels from non-reader to fourth grade ability.

After trying unsuccessfully to juggle these three groups, especially the "basal" reading one, I reached an understanding with my principal to let the students READ. They read the comics, made up stories and read them to each other, wrote stories about pictures I had, and made their own books and read them to each other.

One day the reading supervisor visited my class. She was horrified! I was not having "reading circle" with "basal" reading. I did not have the magic three reading groups, one in basal (how I came to hate that word), one in independent follow-up activities, one in games. *I was not following the curriculum!* And she was right. Instead I had 25 sixth graders who were reading.

I am not saying that reading skills are not important. They are. But reading is more than learning skills—reading is enjoying the printed word, too. The reading supervisor did not see that we were a class of readers; she only saw that we were not a class of three reading groups following a prescribed reading curriculum.

—Name Withheld upon Request.

Mainstreaming

My experiences with mainstreamed pupils in a Massachusetts classroom have been drastically different from those of the teachers who comment in the "Special Feature on Mainstreaming" (March-April).

In the past two years, I have "discovered" 13 children who are 766 students (by going to guidance with problems about them); I have been invited to CORE evaluations for only three of them. I have never received an educational plan for any of them.

—Name Withheld upon Request.

As the articles on mainstreaming pointed out, every student has a special need.

At Maury High School in Norfolk, Virginia, mainstreaming involves individualized instruction within the framework of a Phase-Elective Program, which offers about 350 courses designed to meet student needs in all categories.

(Continued on page 18)

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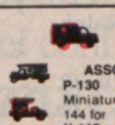
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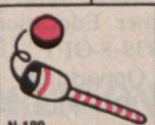
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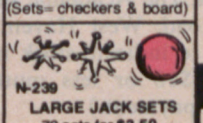
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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 34, 35

LETTERS
(Continued)

The Maury Program, developed under a Title III Project, is now providing its experiences and materials nationwide under a Title IV-C Dissemination Project. You may write for more information about the program to me at Maury High School, Norfolk City Schools, 322 Shirley Avenue, Norfolk, Virginia 23517.

—Harrison G. Dudley, *Norfolk.*

Nothing New on Censorship

Your March-April articles on censorship bring nothing new to light. They are a rehash of the old question: Who is to be censor?

—Gene Detweiler, *drafting teacher, Allegan (Michigan) High School.*

What About the Average Student?

Congratulations to Mr. Beers ("Letters," March-April) for his comments concerning the average student.

Our schools devote much time and money to the minority (slow or gifted), which is all well and good, but my heart goes out to those forgotten average students. What happens to them as they are lost in the educational shuffle?

—Deloris Klug, *Dobyns-Bennett High School, Kingsport, Tennessee.*

Behavioral Objectives—A Charade

David Campbell says that teachers, forced to write behavioral objectives, are "performing a charade for the benefit of administration" ("Behavioral Objectives—The Grand Charade," March-April). If, indeed, teachers were writing behavioral objectives because they were forced to, then it would be a "grand charade."

Behavioral objectives are merely a tool and of and by themselves are quite useless. However, when viewed in the larger context of "effective teaching," their purpose becomes apparent. Research indicates that effective teaching includes: (a) analysis of the task and/or concept to be taught, (b) assessment of student performance, (c) an educational prescription (complete with behavioral objectives), (d) evaluation of the effectiveness of the prescription.

Within this framework, behavioral objectives help the teacher identify what he will teach and provide information as to whether he taught it.

Writing behavioral objectives, then, is an empirically validated method for providing effective instruction. It seems Campbell's denial of that fact is the "grand charade."

—Michael E. Gallery, *research assistant, Utah State University.*

Bull's-eye, Mr. Campbell. Behavioral objectives go down along with teacher evaluation methods and other ridiculous "charades" as methods for stifling teacher creativity and effectiveness. I just hope and pray that the perpetrators wise up before much further damage is done.

—C. William Leggee, *director of vocal music, Huntley (Illinois) Consolidated Schools.*

Teachers Are Human, Too

I found the reactions to the March-April "Dilemma" at least as harmful to the teacher, who wrongly accused a child of stealing, as her reaction to the children. The reactors have overlooked an obvious point: Teachers are human. They make mistakes too.

Frankly, as a mother of two, I would more willingly trust my children to the compassionate and penitent teacher, albeit one who admits errors, than to those hard-bitten reactors, who, since they cannot forgive the teacher for an error, might find it hard to forgive children for an error.

—Lennie Parker, *Clifton, New Jersey.*

Re: NEA Resolution 75:11: Sex Education

Who is to determine what information about sex and how much information is appropriate for children and youth? Who is going to determine which values of the educator will foster healthy, well-adjusted mental attitudes in the student? Who is going to determine the qualifications of teachers to teach sex education?

What restrictions (horrors!) will be placed on such a program? Will such a program work for the release of human energy "from the yoke of fear, guilt, and ignorance about sex" as SIECUS proposes? Is information about abortion to be included in the birth control sessions? Will youth be provided with information on where and how to terminate life?

If only we would stop indoctrinating our young in such programs and get down to the business of teaching them how to read and write and add, how successful we would be.

—Neal Pesavento, *Calumet City, Illinois.*

PHOTO CREDITS
p. 44: Gratz High School; pp. 50-51: Joe DiDio; pp. 74-75: Ferguson-Florissant School District; p. 80: Children's Television Workshop; p. 86: Institute for Political and Legal Education; p. 95: ABC Television.

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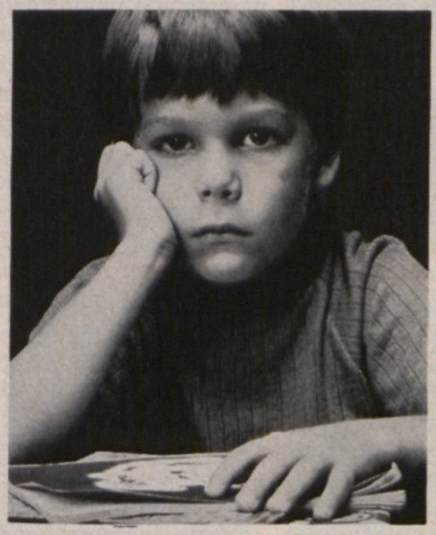

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 22

TEACHER OPINION POLL

Discipline

Discipline problems and violence are as much a part of schools as reading, writing, and arithmetic these days, according to the media. But what do teachers say about violence and discipline problems in the schools, the causes of this misbehavior, and the provisions schools have made to help them handle these problems?

In its 1976 nationwide survey, NEA Research gathered data from a scientifically selected sample of public school teachers to find out.

First, let's see what the teachers said about the incidence of violence and discipline problems. Three questions on the survey directly related to this:

- Is student violence a problem in your school? Only 4.3 percent of the teachers said it was a major problem. Twenty-eight percent said that it was a minor one, and 67.7 percent reported that it was not a problem. As might be expected, proportionately more urban teachers said violence was a major or a minor problem (47.3 percent) than did suburban (29.5 percent) or rural teachers (22.8 percent).
- Have you been physically attacked or has your personal property been maliciously damaged by a student this school year? Only 2.9 percent said they had been physically attacked, and 8.9 percent said their property had been maliciously damaged. Differences between urban, suburban, and rural teachers, though in the same direction, were not so marked on this question as on the previous one.
- In your opinion, to what extent is each of the following a problem in your school? A list of problems followed the question, and teachers checked one of four columns for each item on the list. A sample of items and teacher responses follow:

	Widespread or frequent	Present, but not widespread or frequent	Rarely occurs	Never occurs
Impertinence and discourtesy to teachers	29.1	50.2	20.0	.8
Theft (small items of little value)	28.6	53.0	17.7	.6
Destruction of school property	23.7	48.3	24.6	3.5
Theft (serious nature: money, etc.)	13.7	46.6.	35.5	4.1
Carrying dangerous weapons	2.8	17.4	51.8	27.9
Assault on teachers	1.0	7.5	37.1	54.3
Rape	.3	1.4	11.9	86.4

Now, what do teachers say are the causes of misbehavior in public schools? The survey presented them with a list, and they could check all factors or conditions they thought applied, indicating that they thought the factor was responsible to a great extent, to some extent, or to a small extent; or that they thought the factor was not responsible; or that they were not certain of the answer.

The largest proportions of teachers said that two factors, irresponsible parents and unsatisfactory home conditions, were responsible to a great extent or to some extent for misbehavior in public schools. The figures were 85.8 and 80.0 percent respectively for each factor.

After these two factors, teachers said the following items were to a great extent or to some extent responsible: overcrowded classes, 55.9 percent; school curriculum unsuited to needs of some students, 45.7 percent; lack of attention for exceptional children, 45.5 percent; and lack of authority by teachers to determine and mete out punishment, 45.4 percent.

What provisions have schools made to help teachers handle these problems? The teachers could mark all the items that applied on the survey list. Counselors trained in dealing with problem students, teacher authority to suspend unruly students from class, and specialists available to help foresee and avert behavior problems led the list with 44, 35, and 32 percent respectively.

The poll asked a separate question concerning one of these—teacher authority to suspend students. The overwhelming majority of respondents —67.6 percent—said that teachers should "have the authority to suspend unruly students from their classes (not from school) without the approval of the principal." More secondary (72.0 percent) than elementary teachers (62.7 percent) were in favor of the practice. □

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People Who Need People

By JULIA MOORE RACKLEFF
English Teacher, Will Rogers High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

This article won the $1,000 first prize in the NEA Bicentennial Essay Contest for NEA members sponsored by the Reader's Digest Foundation.

In the My America competition for schoolchildren, cosponsored by the Bicentennial Commission of Pennsylvania and NEA, the first-prize winner in the New York State contest was Tracy Ann O'Boyle of Setauket. A picture of the third grader's entry, a felt poster, appears on page 22.

The Psalmist asks, "What is man that thou are mindful of him?" In *The Ascent of Man,* Jacob Bronowski replies, "Ask an impertinent question and you are on your way to a pertinent answer."

In spite of the realization that all information is imperfect and absolute knowledge is nonexistent, man continues his relentless search for answers about himself and his society. The search is as old as written records, and the literary road to pertinency is paved with varied and contradictory answers.

Hamlet's view of man is an exalted one:

> What a piece of work is a man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculty! in form and moving how express and admirable! in action how like an angel! in apprehension how like a god! the beauty of the world! the paragon of animals!

In *Cui Bono,* Thomas Carlyle sees man somewhat differently:

> A foolish baby;
> Vainly strives, and fights, and frets:
> Demanding all, deserving nothing,
> One small grave is all he gets.

Emerson reconciles these conflicting views in his essay, *Compensation:* "Whilst the world is . . . dual, so is every one of its parts. . . . The same dualism underlies the nature and condition of man."

In *Our Town,* Thornton Wilder confirms this dualism by picturing man as a "social-solitary" being, to borrow a term from Bronowski. Jane Crofut is a grain of sand, an individual. Jane is also an isthmian link to the Crofut farm, the neighboring town, the county, state, nation, continent, hemisphere, earth, solar system, universe, and mind of God. She is at once an island of self-sufficiency and a continent of social concern, the kind of social concern that manifests itself every day wherever human beings are found.

Social though he is, man is also solitary. The truth of "No man is an island" is only a half-truth. From birth to death, man struggles to stand alone, to do things for himself in his own way.

In *With Child,* the poet Genevieve Taggard sees the struggle beginning even before birth: "In the dark, defiant even now, it tugs and moans to be untangled from these mother's bones." Babies detest the confines of their cribs. They want to sit up, pull up, stand up, walk without mother's hand.

My eight-year-old, who had lost none of his distaste for restrictions, listened patiently to my explanation of our nation's birthday and then commented, "I'll be glad when I get my independence!" The passing of years will dim his eyesight but not his love of independence. The octogenarian's greatest desire is to remain financially, physically, and mentally able to stay in his own little house and supply his own needs until he dies.

Equally strong in man is the desire for companionship, for communication, for loving and being loved, for acceptance by and contribution to society. Even in his fight for individuality he maintains a profound

concern for others, a concern which he promotes with missionary zeal. Like a highway circuit rider who has exchanged his horse for a camper, he uses many methods in his attempts to convert the nonbeliever. His bumper sticker pleads, "Even goat herders need love"; his tape deck croons, "People who need people are the luckiest people in the world"; and his lapel pin admonishes, "Have a good day and pass it on."

Although most of his hours are spent in social activities, man must reserve some time for solitude, for solitude is the breeding ground of dreams, and without dreams people cannot survive. On every hand, for good or ill, we see the social impact of the solitary dreamer: Henry Ford dreamed, and the world tries to untangle the snarls of bumper-to-bumper traffic; Patrick Henry dreamed, and a nation celebrates its bicentennial birthday.

As fresh water must have inflow and outflow, so must man have the solitary inflow of strength and inspiration and the social outflow of communication and service. No individual and no group is too small or too primitive for significant societal contributions.

In *These Strange Ashes,* an analysis of her linguistic work in South America, Elisabeth Elliott describes an aloof, primitive Ecuadoran tribe whose exports have invaded the lives of practically every citizen in the United States:

> In the forest that lies deep between the western cordillera of the Andes and the Pacific Ocean, there is a small tribe of Indians called the Colorados. The country is Ecuador. . . . Of the nine tribes that live there, the Colorados are by far the most colorful. Their name means *red* in Spanish and they are . . . painted from head to toe. I lived [among them] for a little less than a year. . . . But I remember them and the color, the music, and the gaiety of their nearly hidden lives, which I tried in my way to invade. . . . They were wealthy because of the export of bananas and *achiote,* the latter for the coloring of margarine.

From the solitary Colorados has come achiote, one of the most commonly used products in American homes. The word itself may someday be a part of everyday American English because our language, although basically Anglo-Saxon, consists of borrowings from many peoples. For example, look at the date, Wednesday, December 6, A.D. 1975—*Wodnesdaeg* (Old English for "Woden's day"), *december* (Latin for "tenth month"), *sex* (Latin for "six"), *Anno Domini* (Latin for "in the year of our Lord"). The date itself is a contribution of Pope Gregory XIII; the numerals are Arabic. If, as Carl Sandburg said, "the past is a bucket of ashes," man must treasure those ashes as an indispensable part of himself—and himself as an equally indispensable part of them.

While we attempt to strengthen and to preserve the uniqueness of the diverse groups that make up our country, we must be careful not to do this in a destructive or divisive manner. The following office memo, when circulated at my school, raised a number of student questions:

> Please fill out in the spaces provided below the numbers of students who fall in the racial category as indicated:
>
> A. American Indian
> B. Negro
> C. Oriental
> D. Spanish American
> E. All Others
>
> Note: It is essentially the student's choice how he wishes to be classified. Example: If a student is only ¼ Indian or wishes to be classified as an Indian, please classify him as an Indian.

The class questioned: "Can you say you're an Indian even though you are not?" "Why would anyone want to say he's something when he's not?" "If you're counting oppressed minorities, why don't you ask about Jewish students?" "When are you going to ask about Scotch-Irish-Americans?"

As the bell sent my puzzled students from homeroom to their first-hour classes, I pondered the effectiveness of today's "togetherness." I recalled the ancient Sanskrit admonition, "Walk together, talk together, all ye peoples of the earth. Then and only then shall ye know peace." In my mind's eye, I saw the view of earth as the astronauts had seen it—a tiny ball whirling in space. I heard the strains of a childhood hymn, "Black or yellow, red or white, they are precious in his sight."

Perhaps today's plowing is necessary for tomorrow's cornucopia. *E Pluribus Unum*—one

out of many—each important in his own right—alike and yet unique. Perhaps today's adventure in diversity will be tomorrow's singular and united strength.

In *North to the Orient,* Anne Morrow Lindbergh presents the following picture of Russia:

> The whole machinery of the "common" stores and the (government-owned) "commercial" stores was tremendously interesting. But if I were to write all those facts down as my impressions of Kamchatka, I would still have missed the point completely. I would have left out the most significant and real impression that remains with me. . . . When I think of Russia now . . . I think of the two women in Karaginski smiling over my baby's picture, of the men tipping back their chairs and laughing at our crossing the date line. I think of my quiet-humored little friend the curator saying to me, "When you write your book, please send it to me."
>
> I think of people and not of ideas and plans and organizations. . . ."

Although man spends a lifetime trying to achieve and maintain his independence, he is most happy in his associations with other people. He wants to share with other human beings his joys, his sorrows, his time, his money, his thoughts. Anne Lindbergh saw Russia as individuals rather than as a race or a country because she could not interact with a race or a country; she could interact only with individuals within that race or country.

The baby wants his mother to release his hand so that he can move toward another baby, the eight-year-old wants the freedom to go at will to find another eight-year-old, and the octogenarian wants to share his own little house with his octogenarian friends.

What is man that thou art mindful of him? A paragon of godlike apprehension? A foolish, fretful baby? A solitary-social who believes that people who need people are indeed fortunate! □

Nostalgia in the Bicentennial Year

By **WILLIAM V. BURGESS**
Associate Professor of Education, University of San Francisco, California.

For several summers now, ever since Grasty School was closed by a countywide consolidation, former students have held a reunion on the old school grounds. I attended in the summer of 1975 to show my own thoroughly suburbanized children an honest-to-goodness one-room schoolhouse. It was my first visit to the school since 1947, and I was the youngest former pupil there.

While I was trying to match the aged faces gathered there to the youthful ones that stared big-eyed from the old school photographs, it suddenly struck me that a vast storehouse of information and experience was assembled on that shaded lawn. The stories that were being swapped about the events of the earlier days lived on in the minds of the speakers and would vanish when death silenced those tongues.

Nostalgia perhaps. The spirit of the bicentennial year maybe. Whatever the source, a sense of having witnessed the passage of a cultural phenomenon stayed with me, and at the semester break in January of this year, I returned to where I grew up in the hills of southern Illinois to talk with some of those old-timers.

I set out to record the events of the school days of 1890-1910 from the mouths of those who had lived them. I interviewed four persons in depth and picked up additional information from many others who volunteered important items. The oldest person I interviewed was 90 years old in August 1975; the youngest, 78. All were eager to "tell it like it was."

The records are clear, of course, on what school was like in those days. Reading records, however, does not give the same sense of vitality as listening to personal accounts of experiences. Hence, I present an oral history.

Q: Do you remember your first day of school?

Chloe B., age 90: I can tell you everything about it. The first day I went to school I wore little red shoes, red stockings, and a white bonnet. Mother fixed my lunch, and Pa carried it for me in a dinner pail when he took me to school.

I remember today what was in that lunch bucket—a boiled egg, a piece of meat, and a biscuit.

George Crawford was the teacher, and he had me sit there and read my ABC's. My mother had been a schoolteacher, and she'd taught them to me before I started.

Ethel S., age 83: I started school in Tennessee, close to Whitwell. We lived on a farm, but Whitwell was our town. Then, when I was eight years old, we moved to Illinois.

When I went to school the first day, I hung onto Pearl [her older sister]. I sat in my seat most of the day.

The second day I had to go to work learning my ABC's. And I had to learn the big ones first, but I wanted to learn the little ones because I knew most of the big ones. Pearl had taught them to me.

Ruth J., age 78: I started to school at Leach School. It was away back up on the hill, off in the woods. All the schools in them days didn't have public roads to them, and you

had to go through horse lots, fields, "meaders," and across streams to get there. And you walked!

Then in 1904, we moved, and I went to Rock School. I went there until I finished the eighth grade—eight or nine winters. Back then, you went to school until you got tired of it.

I remember my first day of school at Rock because I didn't know a soul. We was going through the woods, and a little path would come in from this-a-way, and a bunch of kids would come down it, and another bunch down the path from that-a-way, and by the time we got to the schoolhouse, there was 15 or 20 of us.

Q: Could you really go to school as long as you wanted to?

Roma S., age 86: Why, my cousin Maurice came back to school after he was married. He must have been over 21.

Chloe B.: Some of the boys and girls went until they were 18 or 20 years old. Bill Perkins went when he was over 21. He had to pay three cents a day because of that.

Ruth: After I'd already graduated, I went back to Leach School one year. I didn't want to stay at home and didn't want to go back to Rock School, because they had the same teacher again. They had a nice eighth grade class at Leach that year. The school board fussed about my going there, but Poppa paid as much taxes in one district as in the other, so I didn't have to pay.

Q: Did the teachers have any trouble making those big kids behave?

Ethel: And how! But the teachers were expected to handle them. I saw one boy whipped until he was whelps all over. He had put a .22 bullet in the stove. The teacher whipped that boy unmerciful. He whipped him until the older boys made him stop.

There was an awful stink about that, and the teacher didn't get that school back.

Ruth: Once in a while, some of the older boys would get unruly. Willie and a black boy, both about 15 or 16, got to shooting paper wads at one another, and the teacher whipped them.

While the teacher went outside to cut a switch, Willie tore his pants legs and turned them back underneath so he had a double thickness of clothing on his legs above his knee boots, and he didn't get hurt too bad. But that black boy took on something awful.

Q: How did a person get to be a teacher?

Chloe: They'd get out of the eighth grade the first of March and the first of May begin "high school" or "summer school" for six weeks. Then they got their certificate.

I'll tell you what my Mother did. She taught school for $16 a month and paid $1 a week board. She taught school two years after I was born, so this would have been before 1885. She didn't have to pass any examinations. I never heard her say that she wrote an examination.

Ruth: They didn't know any more than we did. One of the women teachers was about 20 years old and had never ridden on a train. I thought that was the queerest thing because we'd rode the train and weren't as old as her.

Roma: After my time, teachers had to go to Carbondale [the location of a normal school] to get their teaching certificate.

Q: What did teachers do with kids who couldn't learn?

Ruth: They didn't pay too much attention to them. We had some kids who were really backward. One kid never finished the fourth grade, but he always held a good job.

Chloe: The teacher would stand the dull ones up in the corner or keep them in at recess so they could study a while longer.

I've seen some held back and not be promoted.

Ethel: All the scholars were treated exactly alike. They just got different grades. They had to get 75 to pass. One boy was in the same grade as long as he went to school.

Q: What did the "scholars" do for fun and games?

Ethel: Lock the teacher out!

At Christmastime, the teacher would be locked out of the school house until he gave us a treat.

Chloe: Oh, we played Drop the Handkerchief, ball, and Snap. Snap was a lot like Drop the Handkerchief.

Ruth: We had a lot of fun. We played in the mud, but we didn't mind.

We had a big hill there, and we'd sleigh ride down that hill. When we'd see that it was going to be cold that night, we'd draw water from the well and pour it down that hill. During the night, it'd freeze over, and the next day, we'd really get a ride.

Some items of interest emerged from the interviews that were not treated directly in the conversations. The first one marks a shift in the method of pupil seating and recitation from the time of Chloe, the oldest, to Ruth, the youngest. In Chloe's day, in the 1890's, boys and girls went to school together but sat on opposite sides of the room and went to the recitation benches in the front of the room as separate groups. By 1904, when Ruth started school, boys and girls were no longer seated separately in class.

A second point is the evidence of increasing centralized control of the curriculum and of teacher preparation. Chloe in the class of '98, Roma in the class of '04, and Ethel in the class of '08 received eighth grade diplomas based on their local teachers' marks. Ruth, a 1912 graduate, was transported to a central site for a countywide examination before she could qualify for her diploma. At about the same time, the teachers were required to go to the nearest normal school at Carbondale (now Southern Illinois University) for summer certification classes.

The world was changing rapidly by then and would never again be the same for schoolchildren. □

What's Wrong with Research in Education?

By **HAROLD HOWE II**

Vice-President for Education and Research, Ford Foundation, and Former U.S. Commissioner of Education.

Education research has caused me a great deal of trouble over the years. The reason is that I, like many others who have had various administrative and policy roles in education, have been unable to ignore it. At the same time, I have been continually perplexed about what education research was suggesting to improve schools and colleges and to enhance their services to students.

In spite of this puzzling aspect of education research, it appears to be a growing enterprise with more participants and more publications every year. And although I have some reservations and questions about this establishment, I have a growing suspicion that its presence is important and possibly even useful.

The first, and perhaps most basic, question I have is whether there is any such thing as "education research." Certainly there is no special methodology of education research. I doubt that any random group of educators could agree on a set of concepts or theories that would give education research a coherent body of knowledge. Then why not stop acting as if it were a separate discipline with its own mystique?

Policymakers and people who appropriate funds to support research on subjects related to education would get a clearer idea of what research can contribute to our understanding of schools, colleges, students, and teachers if the research community were clearer about what it does. And what it does is very simple: It uses the tools, concepts, and theories of inquiry provided by numerous disciplines to examine various aspects of education.

Research in education gets done no differently than research on any other broad topic: by using different ways of knowing to discover new knowledge. These ways of knowing break down into three types based upon the division of the disciplines into the natural and physical sciences, the social and behavioral sciences, and the arts and humanities. For this reason, I am not willing to admit that there is such a thing as an "educationist," although I have, upon occasion, been accused of being one. The only definition I can think of for such an animal would be "a person who is interested in education but lacks training in a discipline that would provide a way of knowing about it."

Where does this viewpoint leave all the people who hold degrees as doctors of education? Slightly disturbed, I hope, but not necessarily considering suicide. They are persons who know a considerable amount about education, having studied it in an organized way over a period of time. They should be useful in training teachers, advising on policy choices, and seeing that schools and colleges proceed with an adequate knowledge of their past sins and current problems. They should be useful on the research front also—largely to the extent that they have mastered one or more of the scholarly disciplines.

People who illuminate education use the disciplines to do it. Lawrence Cremin and David Tyack are first of all historians, Clark Kerr is first of all an economist, and Alan Campbell is first of all a political scientist. These people have more than a nodding acquaintance with several disciplines, but all of them mastered one first and grew from there. It is fortunate that they have applied much of their energy to education.

People who can make a first-rate contribution to research in education, or in anything else for that matter, come to the job with a first-rate set of tools and a disciplined way to think about problems. One reason for the large volume of poor research in education is that many people engage in it with dull tools or with no tools at all or in a state of confusion because they are attempting to use many tools simultaneously and haven't mastered any of them. One hazard of becoming a doctor of education is that doctoral programs are liable to slight the disciplines.

Not only inadequacy of tools and theories but other factors as well have encouraged second-rate research. Let me plead guilty to participation in two of these developments: the rapid increase in the 1960's of federal support for research in education and a special byproduct of that support known as the ERIC system (ERIC stands for Educational Resources Information Center).

The story of the growth of fed-

eral support for research in education is yet to be told in any comprehensive way. Let me give just one impression here: The U.S. Office of Education moved too rapidly to large-scale support of research activity and was not able to control quality in the process. This should not be taken as an argument for restricting the present budget of the National Institute of Education, however. That agency is working its way toward disciplining its grants in a fashion that was not typical of the research program of the Office of Education when it built rapidly to well over $100 million a year in the late 1960's and early 1970's.

My one comment on the ERIC system is that if it had started with a stronger element of quality control and less concern with coverage, it would now be a better show. Not that it isn't useful, and its brief studies on particular issues are excellent. But at the touch of a computer button, one learns more than one cares or needs to know about what's in print on most education-related subjects. I realize, of course, that there is a process of selection for what is reported by ERIC. I wonder whether it would be possible to develop a process of grading.

Another reason for the less than excellent research in education is the efforts made in the 1960's to include everybody in education. In the research field, this created the false notion that a very large number of persons could do quality research in education. This fallacy still persists; it has been somewhat diluted, however, by the dismal results of promoting egalitarianism in an enterprise that depends on intellectual power and expertise in the major disciplines.

It's true that the need to improve the quality of research has been recognized. At the National Institute of Education, in particular, an organized effort is being made to identify high quality work and build on it. This effort is being counterbalanced, however, by political pressure to spread federal funds around so that everyone can have a little. Furthermore, the argument goes, every locality has unique education problems, so education research services are needed in each region—and in each state and in cities within states. There is some truth in this idea, but not so much as we have made ourselves believe.

In addition to the lack of quality control, research faces a major problem in communication. Education policymakers and practicing educators on the one hand and people who use their skills in various disciplines to seek new truths about education on the other are not able to communicate with each other.

Economists, psychologists, and sociologists necessarily have special vocabularies to convey concepts accurately so that their communications have scientific validity. In addition many disciplines employ mathematical analyses with growing sophistication to produce new insights into problems and issues in education. Neither the special vocabularies nor the mathematical analyses are understandable to a high proportion of people who conduct or who are responsible for the day-to-day business of education.

This is a familiar situation in many scientific fields. But the practitioners and policymakers in the field of education expect a different kind of relationship between research and practice. They assume that research should be relevant to the education system as they know it, and they assume further that it should be understandable to them. When it doesn't provide clear answers to issues that they confront or when they cannot understand the answers it provides, educators and education policymakers tend to be both more critical and more suspicious of the research enterprise than are their counterparts in other fields. One reason for this state of affairs is that everyone who has gone to school has formed judgments about the education system. Research studies that don't agree with these judgments or that are not clear or that only specialists can understand are therefore particularly annoying. In this sense, research about education operates in an especially troublesome environment, while research about oceanography or China is relatively free to go its own way.

What makes things worse is that the education research community has adopted a pseudoscientific way of talking about what it does. Since economists, sociologists, and others seem to gain status by having their private idiom, educators without a solid base in a true discipline have developed a language known as pedaguese or educationese. It is filled with excess verbiage, has none of the rigor of the special communication systems that good social scientists use in dealing with one another, and constitutes one of the highest forms of obfuscation practiced in America today.

Educationese is a dull language, in which words like *ongoing* are applied indiscriminately. It is also singularly unimaginative. Instead of creating its own expressions, it adopts castoffs from elsewhere. Educators discovered the word *thrust* after it had been worn out by everyone else; now they are producing sentences like "The thrust of this paper will be toward two foci."

Simply suggesting that educators and researchers use good English is not enough, however. A more basic communications gap has serious implications for both the support of research and its use.

This gap is illustrated by that controversial, large-scale research effort known as the Coleman Report (*Equality of Educational Opportunity* by James S. Coleman and others). That document has been used to oppose the desegregation of the schools, to argue that more funds for education would not improve learning, and to support the

In addition to the lack of quality control, research faces a major problem in communication.

view that schools don't have much to do with learning. It has also been used to defend the exact opposite of these three propositions. It is, indeed, an all-purpose document—which illustrates the difficult problem of communication between scholars and practitioners. This is a problem that all of us concerned about education must keep in mind and worry about. There are no quick solutions to it. It has its counterparts in other realms of research and action, but I think that the difficulties in education are especially detrimental to the interests of both research and the institutions and students it ultimately serves.

Research in education also suffers from too large expectations as to its usefulness. Those of us who engage in such research and those of us who support it with either public or private funds should be more modest than we have been about its potentials for solving all the problems of schools, colleges, and students. The "can do" syndrome that characterizes research and development in technological fields has infiltrated research in education. If we can go to the moon through the miracles of R&D, then why on earth can't we figure out the most advantageous class size or the effects of integration or how to teach children to read?

The answer is, of course, that these problems, which worry educators and for which they seek definitive answers through research, are vastly more complex than the relatively simple matter of going to the moon. In education, the fundamental units with which we deal are individual human beings. Their behavior is influenced by differing inheritances, by varied experiences in life, and by feelings and attitudes that change unpredictably as their lives change. Information about human beings cannot be put into computers with the expectation that calculations about them will have the predictability that the laws of gravity will produce when fed into the same computers.

I am not arguing that the social and behavioral sciences are either useless or unscientific; I am simply stating some of their limitations in the field of education. These are too frequently forgotten both by enthusiastic researchers and by naive laymen who are overimpressed with the scientists' mumbo jumbo. This combination of enthusiasm and simplistic response holds dangers for education that researchers may not have intended—but for which they must be held responsible.

A final problem I want to discuss is the effectiveness of research in education. Does it really affect what happens in schools?

Major decisions about education are controlled first of all by society's predominant values and are only indirectly influenced by research studies. But that influence should not be unduly downgraded. Think, for example, of the extensive research that has been done on the mental, physical, and emotional development of children. I don't know whether this work is legitimately called education research, but it seems to me that the halting process of changing school practices to take into account what studies of child development reveal is one of the better illustrations of how research can improve education.

Here again, however, education has a special problem. The time lag between new findings about human development and changes in the institutions that are in the business of developing humans (schools and colleges) is totally different from the time lag between discoveries in the physical sciences and their application to human affairs. The resistance of institutions to change accounts for part of this lag. Much of it comes from the familiar problem of communications—in this case, the difficulty of translating research findings into forms that the schools can use.

All these problems of research in education suggest three conclusions I'd like educators to consider.

1. There is an important job to do in improving the quality of the activity that goes on under the banner of education research.

2. If people engaged in this activity want support for their efforts, they will have to make those efforts produce demonstrably useful changes in education.

3. They won't succeed in the mission of causing useful change unless they learn to communicate with those who must carry it out. □

Mr. Howe spoke at greater length on this subject at the 1976 meeting of the American Educational Research Association. The speech appeared in the June 1976 issue of *Educational Researcher*.
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A Telephone Call to Mary Hemingway

By **BROOKE WORKMAN**
English Teacher, West High School, Iowa City, Iowa.

Tuesday, April 29, 1975. 8:30 a.m. C.S.T.

It was a BIG DAY for the first period American literature seminar at West High School in Iowa City, Iowa: This was the time that Mary Hemingway had agreed to talk to us by phone from her apartment in New York City.

What's so exciting about a telephone interview? Well, let's go back a month, to early March, when my 12 juniors and seniors had already written their papers on the early 1920's Nick Adams stories and the 1926 novel *The Sun Also Rises.*

After two students had completed their oral defenses of their position papers on the latter novel, Stoney—a bright eager junior—said, "I wonder what Ernest Hemingway was *really* like. I mean, after we finish *A Farewell to Arms,* we have to write a paper on both the writer and the man. The stuff I've been reading in Carlos Baker's biography is good, but. . . ."

Connie nodded in agreement. "Wouldn't it be neat if we could talk to somebody who knew him?" she said.

I thought for a moment as the rest of the class said something about taking an extended field trip to Oak Park, Key West, Ketchum —and Cuba if Castro were willing.

"Well, let's see . . . we have some money in the audiovisual budget for telephone calls," I said. "I've never tried that."

The class laughed. "Not that much money," said Dan.

"Wait a minute," I said. "I'm referring to the telephone kit our school has leased from Ma Bell. It's a two-way thing where the whole class can both talk and listen."

"Great!" shouted Dan. "Let's call someone. But who?"

"How about Mary Hemingway?" said Stoney. "You know, his wife. The last one. She has all the rights to his books and everything. Ernest used to call her 'Miss Mary.' "

"Hey, Stoney, you have been reading ahead," said Dan.

So we did call. Or rather, I told the class that I had better write Mrs. Hemingway a letter to see if she would agree. On second thought, the class began to expect the worst. Someone famous talking to a high school class in *Iowa!* Indeed! But I wrote anyway, and in less than a week, Mary Hemingway sent back my letter in the self-addressed envelope. At the bottom, she wrote: "OK, but may the questions be specific." She noted her private phone number and suggested the best time and days of the week for an interview.

When I told the seminar about the good news, a kind of frenzy broke out. "I don't believe it. Gosh, now that we can really do it, what are we going to ask her?" said Stoney.

"It was your idea in the first place," said Connie.

"We had better know something about Mrs. Hemingway," said Dan.

"We had better know something about Hemingway!" shouted Jeremy, who had just written a paper entitled "Grace Under Pressure."

We laid the groundwork for the interview. We decided to postpone the paper on *A Farewell to Arms*; instead we would concentrate on biographical material about the Nobel Prize winner. With this study and the interview as background, the next paper on the writer would be especially meaningful. So we collected biographical material about Hemingway, as well as articles by and about Mary Hemingway.

It was soon obvious that Mary Hemingway was more than just the wife of an author. A noted World War II correspondent, she had met Ernest in London in 1944, and he had proposed to her a week later. Ten years after their marriage and two years after winning the Nobel Prize, Ernest himself described his

wife's many talents:

"Miss Mary is durable. She is also brave, charming, witty, exciting to look at, a pleasure to be with, and a good wife. She is also . . . a strong swimmer, a really good cook, a good judge of wine, an excellent gardener, an amateur astronomer, a student of art, political economy, Swahili, French, and Italian and can run a boat or a household in Spanish. She can also sing well. . . ."

Finally, each student planned one question to ask Mary Hemingway; we also added some consensus class questions. About a week before the interview, we mailed her our questions as well as a reminder of the time and date. My assessment of our questions: She would need about six hours to answer them. Maybe more. Yet we had only a half hour of budgeted telephone time.

The day of the interview was a comedy of confusion, errors, and delight. Obviously untrained in the science of interview, we hooked up the telephone kit in the office conference room. Nervously we called one student's home three times to make sure the phone was working.

About the only intelligent planning we did was to have a last-minute discussion of whether we should tape the interview. Somebody screamed something about Watergate. Another said he had checked with the AV director, who said that to do so we would need a beeper as well as written permission from Mrs. Hemingway. So no tape recording.

In desperation, wanting to have some record, we asked a school secretary to take shorthand notes. Later, we discovered that she had been so flustered by the obvious excitement and tension in the conference room that she did not get one sentence on paper!

Aside from this, the interview went perfectly. Everybody asked a question; everybody spoke to Miss Mary. Each student was satisfied with her responses—always to the point, never ducking an issue, complete with anecdotes, kind, and so very lively and intelligent. During the interview, I looked across the room with delight as everybody seemed to be nodding and smiling and taking notes.

When our half hour was up, everybody shouted: "Goodbye! Goodbye! And thanks!"

The next day we pooled our notes, our memories.

"She really answered my question about how she felt when she and Ernest were in those two airplane crashes in Africa," said Marzia.

"What did she say?" groaned Dan, who had missed the interview because of the flu.

"She said, 'Try it sometime, and you'll know'," laughed Marzia.

"Did anybody ask my question about what Ernest's routine was down in Cuba and whether she ever talked with him about his writing when he was working?" Dan asked.

"I did," said Will. "She said he worked fairly steadily, usually from seven to noon. She said he didn't talk much about his writing even though she typed the manuscript of *The Old Man and the Sea.* But she did say that she had told him she hoped he wouldn't kill off the Old Man at the end."

Then Greg, a serious National Merit winner, began to review what Mary had said about literary criticism. "She said she wasn't a critic but that she had a fondness for *The Sun Also Rises* because it seemed like a vital and true book about the special craziness of Paris in the 1920's. And she loved the way Ernest had dealt with the beautiful scenery of Spain—and the bullfights in Pamplona."

"Hey, Greg, don't forget that Miss Mary said asking her to pick her favorite book is like asking a mother which of her seven children she likes best," said Stoney.

"Right," said Greg. "I guess you could sum up the whole point about literary criticism by saying that she felt Hemingway was largely unconcerned about critics. He didn't write to prove himself—certainly not with *The Old Man and the Sea.* He was a writer who wrote about what interested him."

During our discussion, we began to piece together the rest of the interview into a kind of *U.S. News and World Report* format:

Cheryl: Why do you think many Communist countries like Ernest's writings?

Mary H.: I'm not sure. But the Russians compare him to Shakespeare. Though we see the royalties piling up in Russia, we can't take any money out. Of course, they never liked *For Whom the Bell Tolls.*

Stoney: What were Ernest's political and racial views?

Mary H.: Ernest was apolitical. He lived much of his life outside the United States. As for prejudices, he had none. Our friends included Orientals and Blacks. For example, one of our good friends in Cuba was a black boxer who used to live in our home there when we were away.

Charles: Where did Ernest get his ideas for the so-called Code Hero, the man who could endure the hardships of life?

Mary H.: I think he lived the life of the Code Hero because he believed in grace under pressure, in courage. Those values were taught to him by his Victorian background back in Oak Park, Illinois.

Connie: I read that durability was one of the most important assets that a woman friend of Ernest Hemingway could have. What are some of the things about him that made this true?

Mary H. (laughing): Oh, that was something I said as a kind of joke. We had been down in Peru doing some fishing under pretty rugged circumstances. The weather and the ocean were rough. I had said something about how you had to be "durable" to go fishing with Ernest.

(Continued on page 124)

The Good Ship Lollipop

By **DONALD M. MURRAY**
Professor of English, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb.

We were a floating university. It's a romantic idea, isn't it? A ship outfitted with library and classrooms, carrying students and professors up to the very doorsteps of the countries they're studying. Greek art in Athens, African politics in Africa, Trinidadian folk music in Port of Spain, marine biology on the ocean itself.

International education is certainly not a new idea, and there have even been floating campuses before. But this World Campus Afloat organization, run by Chapman College in California, was probably the most prominent and the most successful in the field. Last year, 1975, was the eleventh year of its operation, and it was its last.

I was a visiting English professor aboard. I had left my job for a semester and had risked chastity, digestion, and financial solvency for the sake of the adventure. I had taught my courses, and I had hopped ashore with my students at Lisbon-Bizerte-Dubrovnik-Piraeus-Istanbul-Iraklion-Alexandria-Dakar-Port of Spain-La Guaira-Cartagena-Port au Prince. We had all learned something—if only where those places are on the map. And we had had a hell of a good time.

Had it been much more than a holiday?

Long before this particular voyage, when the organization was called University of the Seven Seas, an image of a pleasure cruise had grown up around it. That was probably one reason why Chapman changed the name to World Campus Afloat. Unintentionally, even Chapman College may have promoted the playpen image by using —as it seemed to me, anyway— an overly generous proportion of games-and-cheesecake photos in its promotional brochures. A colleague of mine on my home campus in frozen Illinois, looking over the brochure, had lightly enquired, "And when does the *Good Ship Lollipop* sail?" Of course, he was eating his heart out with envy, but with those photos before our eyes, some flippancy about the educational purpose of the trip was inevitable.

So, I asked myself who and what we really were. I tried to start answering myself, systematically, with some facts.

Our ship was the *S.S. Universe Campus,* chartered—and I believe partially donated—by the Orient Overseas Line of Hong Kong and Taiwan (C. Y. Tung, owner). It was 563 feet long, had nine decks, and, seen from a distance, was quite lovely: white with a yellow stack and old-fashioned (1953) cruiseship lines. On it were 356 students 57 faculty and staff, 176 Chinese crew members from Taiwan or Hong Kong, and two deans.

We had a nice little reference library with high-edge shelves so the books wouldn't slide off and a nice middle-sized blonde librarian who knew her job. We had classrooms made out of passengers' lounges (crazy places to teach in— all leather upholstery and chrome, with air conditioners roaring). We had a small outdoor swimming pool that slopped over even in the gentlest sea and that got closed down for a while, once, because students skinny-dipped in it. We had a big, darkish student-union-auditorium with a bar in it and, down on levels so low that I rarely ventured there for fear of getting lost, we had a hospital, a bookstore, a baggage room, and a movie theater.

With these facilities, the World Campus Afloat offered some 60 undergraduate courses, courses which pertained more or less directly to the places we visited in the Mediterranean and Caribbean: Politics of the Middle East, Mediterranean Literature in Translation, Oceanography.

Our students were a heterogeneous lot, mostly sophomores and juniors from institutions other than Chapman. The WCA was adequately accredited, so these people could try to transfer the credits they earned to whatever campus they went to afterward—which was often not the one they came from. During one five-year period 250 different institutions were represented aboard the WCA, but on my voyage it seemed that Californians and Texans dominated.

All students paid sizable fees,

← *The green and blue world unrolling in front of us was a textbook, and we didn't even have to turn the pages.*

which varied somewhat according to the relative luxury or inconvenience of their beehive quarters on the lower decks, but, on an average, the board-room-tuition bill for each student for the one semester was about $4,000. Extras were likely to run pretty high: Lots of dollar bills crossed the bar, and each port was a shopping center of magnitude and glamor that raised American consumer drive to unusual heights.

So the students were from different places—and had different levels of ability—but except for a few scholarship folk, they had one thing in common: money.

The faculty had at its core a small group of Chapman people—bright young lecturers and warm fraternizers. But mostly we were visiting professors who just had a passion for traveling and were at the moment trying hard to learn how to travel and teach at the same time. Most of us made it. We all had other jobs and responsibilities at the backs of our minds, but these got pushed so far back in our minds that at the end of the voyage we all offered to teach another round for nothing if it would keep the WCA afloat.

We conducted regular classes while at sea, and sometimes even while in port, and we conducted "practicums" during the port stays, which were from three to seven days. These practicums were organized projects like slogging through cathedrals with the art history teacher in Lisbon, writing travel essays for the writing teacher (me) in Africa, snorkeling over a coral reef in Tobago for the biologist, tromping over an asphalt lake for the geologist in Trinidad.

There were briefings about U.S. relations with each country, briefings given aboard ship by what was usually a hotshot briefer from our embassy, and there were lectures by learned folk from various in-port institutions. Finally, there were the entertainers, the folk dancers, singers, and weird-instrument players, who had been engaged in advance and who came aboard, evenings, to wag their beards, swirl their gay sashes, peer at us with their wild and friendly eyes, and bang on their outrageous drums. One night in Greece we had 20 Zorbas on the stage; another night, in Haiti—but I should begin at the beginning about that episode.

We had on our faculty a mighty ethnomusicologist named Phil, a man who knew the native names of all the three-pronged left-handed toe-harps and eight-ventricled Siberian zithers in the world and who could, moreover, play them. He knew how xylophone music got from Gambia to Lenox Avenue and how an oil drum is cut up and rewelded so it will sound like a cello. And he was also a one-man actors' agency, an "arranger" of learning and expertise.

In Haiti he arranged an event that turned out to be just a little beyond even his own expectations. It was rather awesome.

He had been determined to bring a real voodoo performance on board—not a show in the sense that such things are given in the nightclubs of Port au Prince, but a real service by simple believers in the religion, which is what voodoo is. To do this, Phil had planned for weeks, cabling ahead to Port au Prince. Finally, he said, he had arranged for some real villagers to come aboard. They would appear at eight.

An audience of 400 waited in the auditorium that night, waited somewhat tensely, as the village group became overdue. Finally, Phil appeared on the little stage, holding the mike. He looked pale.

"They're here," he said. "You won't believe me, but I've got 85 frightened rural Haitian people out there. I got the whole village!"

They were scared, he explained, because they were a long way from home and were "over water," which is spiritually bad, and were among strange people. It had been only through the efforts of the young American anthropologist who lived with them and spoke Creole (they couldn't speak French, much less English) that they had been persuaded to come. "So," said Phil, "you've got to be warm and accepting—you've got to drink their sugarcane moonshine, you've got to dance."

They came in, through the back doors of the lounge-auditorium, like a sort of black avalanche of gyrating anacondas, and they were banging the long drums, tooting the long bamboo pipes (*vaccines?*), led by the scarlet-and-gold clothed priest (houngan), who danced backward, beckoning his people. Accept them? We were, in a few minutes, a part of a wild melee. Dance with them? We danced like mad. We spilled out onto the promenade deck, we flooded into classrooms and corridors.

The dancing went on all night. It was a practicum to remember.

Some of the practicums were routine projects ashore, like the optional "city orientation" bus tours most of us went on in each port. The buses had guides: "That is the Palace of Justice; to your left is the Old Spanish Fort," and so on. And they always should have added what was nevertheless understood: "And pretty soon we will stop at the souvenir shop owned by my brother-in-law."

Sometimes routine touristic junkets were exciting, as when we shuffled, bent double in the dark, through the dust of centuries, down the slanting tunnel into the heart of the Great Pyramid. Even the inevitable camel ride was fun, with the brass tag on the pommel that said, "Your Camel Man Is No. 32," and the camel man himself, walking alongside holding the leash and looking up (sneakily, when the tour guide couldn't see him) with his hand out, saying "backsheesh, backsheesh!"

It was all education, and like some land-based education, it was sometimes just a little wearisome.

Guides, I think (with Mark Twain), are mostly crooks and pedants at best: "Here is the summer palace of the kings of blah; there is the room where the prince of blah was imprisoned for nine years by the usurper; look, you can see where he paced a worn path in the rug; here is where President Roosevelt slept in Port of Spain." Yet, now that it's over, I'm glad I saw each standard, tourist-worn spot. I even wish I'd tipped the guides more.

Because the in-port activity was the heart of the WCA program, it was not unorganized, as I may have implied. It was a feast that we had been carefully prepared for.

Professors tailored their courses as much as possible to the itinerary. Thus, before we landed in Lisbon, my Mediterranean Literature class read the Portuguese poet Fernando Pessoa and at the same time got halfway through Robert Fitzgerald's fine verse translation of the Odyssey. So, when we docked on the "smooth, mute, ancestral Tagus," we had something of Pessôa's feelings to help *us* feel; and when we passed the Pillars of Hercules and entered Odysseus' "wine-dark" sea, we were ready for Scylla and the call of whatever sirens still live there.

Geographers and oceanographers and historians, of course, had it made: The green and blue unrolling world in front of us was a textbook, and we didn't even have to turn the pages.

More specifically port-focused than the classes and probably more important generally to the program, were the daily forums, convocations of the entire WCA, at which one or more specialists gave lectures and led discussions. These lecturers were, mostly, young teachers who were quite brilliant—there is no other adjective for them. I remember a philosophy lecture, just before Greece, that started with a slide of the Parthenon and an analysis of two Greek culture words and then went on to stagger our heads with the changes wrought since Pericles in Western notions of what is truly human. It made us want to look closely at the beautiful skeletons of temples we were due to visit next day.

After the forums and after certain practical little meetings called preport tips ("Is the water safe?" "Are the taxis a rip-off?" "What is the *dinar* worth now?"), we plunged down the gangplank into the dock area ("Don't go alone at night!"), into the cities, and often into the country beyond. With as many as seven days in a port, some students ranged pretty far, for instance on an overnight train from Alexandria to Luxor or on a flight to the High Dam at Aswan or on a four-day jaunt by airplane and dugout canoe to the *Green Mansions* jungle on the border of Venezuela. I myself usually stuck to the old parts of the towns, the Greenwich Villages six centuries old, which had not only the bookstores but the stones that told stories. Around each instructor gathered students with similar tastes.

At best, this kind of education caused webs and patterns of association to grow—grow like spreading fire—in our minds. And it happened naturally, usually, without the sweat and grind sometimes characteristic of nonfloating campuses.

Strong webs of association created attitudes, and though it sounds a little corny to write it down, many of us began to feel very acutely what we had only acknowledged intellectually before—that the problems of people "over there" somewhere are *our* problems.

The world is small, the turmoil and the suffering outside the gates are getting closer. Pollution in Turkey (the Golden Horn is a black sewer) is in *our* world. So is overpopulation in Cartagena—that overcrowded, charming Colombian city will double in 25 years, and I can see vividly in my mind's eye the stair-step families of 10 kids, leaning against scabby housefronts in garbagey little streets.

Wars are going on all over, too; in fact, we came close to bullets in Lisbon and Beirut. This is not "their" world, it's ours. "The bond of common humanity," was the dean's phrase in a good (and short!) sermon; we sang a rather boy-scoutish school song called "Brothers Around the World." OK, yes. But the attitude some of us were getting, I think, from our webs of association, was better put by Auden:

There is no such thing as the State
And no one exists alone;
Hunger allows no choice
To the citizen or the police;
We must love one another or die.

Consciousness of the world's sharp wealth-poverty division was ironically heightened, in my mind at least, by the very contrast of our beautiful white ship with the dockyard slums we often tied up at. To the dockworkers and the fishermen and shoelace hawkers and beggars and prostitutes and dwellers of casbahs of all kinds who looked up (at minor ports, we must have seemed 20 stories high), curiously peering, we must have appeared as a Hilton Hotel suddenly built on their street.

Visitors came aboard—though not often, since it was hard for them to get permission from their own authorities—and some of the visitors were not only the swaggering officials and dignitaries, but wide-eyed kids, urchins stepping into a palace. One Cartagenian kid of 10 tried to stow away on the *Universe Campus*, and he almost made it. He would have done anything to go where people live as we lived on that ship.

I know what it taught me, this continual exposure to the have-and-have-not dichotomy of the world, but I wonder what attitudes it fructified in the rest of us? Surely we were not unsympathetic to have-nots. We raised over $4,000 for

the poor of Haiti at a shipboard auction party (where, to be sure, we thought more about the hoopla of the auction itself than about the poor of Haiti—who *were* they, anyway?), but we did raise it, and we found a good charity to give it to, and we went and genuinely loved the little handicapped kids there.

And we always went down the gangplank with our fresh American openness and Walt-Whitman comradeship, loving and grinning, and expecting to be loved. And we usually were. Well-fed American kids have a gift for being good-looking, good-humored, and outgoing. Trouble is, I guess we often liked the ports because they were quaint and picturesque—*that* kind of loving ("Oh, I just *loved* those people, they're so *sweet*!")—and went back to our clean sheets and well-stocked table with a bland complacency. My hope is, though, that powerful images had been planted in minds. Maybe, with thought, minds went from "Brothers Around the World" to "We must love one another or die" and then to "We must help one another or die."

The formation of rich associational patterns and the emergence of new feelings, attitudes: That's what education was, at its best, aboard the WCA.

But it wasn't always at its best, because the system had a few flaws, some built-in, others beyond our control.

The main flaw that grew out of the system's own merits was the fact that the educational mixture was sometimes—was often—simply too rich. Our mental circuits got overloaded, especially when the ports came at us in quick succession—bang-bang-bang, Istanbul-Iraklion-Alexandria or bang-bang-bang, La Guaira-Cartagena-Port of Spain. This would have been OK for a plain cruise ship. Indeed, we saw such tourist ships slipping into the dock, to be met by a band and to buy their souvenirs and slip out again, often before we WCA people had fully absorbed the morning's forum before disembarking. No, learning requires some time to reflect.

All education is force-feeding, but this feeding was sometimes done with a shovel. Or, more genteelly speaking, you could say that the generous cornucopia tilted up for us a little too fast and gave, instead of an offering, an avalanche. An avalanche of data and experiences in literature - art - history - economics - science. And added to those academic goodies were the normal joys of travel: the novelty of shipboard life (sunset on the fantail! dolphins crossing the bow!), the strange and warm excitement of getting to know that Chinese crew (we all, finally, learned to say *hsieh-hsieh*, thank you), the Covered Bazaar in Istanbul and the Casbah in Tunis and the goat barbecue in Haiti—it was a carnival of excitements, a continual, exhausting carnival.

Unable to pack it all in, we had to talk, talk. At each port, students coming back up the gangplank after a day in town would grab the "duty officer" (who was one of the faculty; we took turns) the way the Ancient Mariner grabbed the wedding guest and simply decant upon him from a full mind: "Wow, do you know where I went today. . . .?" "Hey, look at this, look what I bought at the Bazaar. . . ."

I hadn't been told what the duty officer's main function was till I got "the duty" myself: I found that I simply had to listen till they calmed down. Like Mommy listening to Johnny when he's just home from summer camp, when he tells it all in a rush, eyes blazing, on the first night back. Or like show-and-tell session in second grade.

The next worst problem, after overload, I think, was the problem of acute and unscreened heterogeneity of the student body. What a random lot! We had Einstein and we had Jukes, and a few retarded armadillos as well. The worst of it was that most of them seemed to have been coddled, previously, through certain kinds of ease-them-through schools that had led them to expect B's or A's for nothing.

Having paid $4,000, and having connections with some pretty high-rent localities, and owning considerable property at home (sports cars? Ritz-sized diamonds? small planets?), they tended to have a little bit of the quality that Scott Fitzgerald was dazzled by in the wealthy he wrote about: arrogance. Well, maybe not arrogance, but it would be a mistake to call them, by and large, humble scholars.

In teaching them, it was hard enough for the professor to find the middle-level to teach to in a class that ranged from angel to armadillo; it was harder yet to meet the unabashed demands for high grades. Yes, I think the word is *demands*. And because we were all cooped up together (I kept remembering Thoreau: ". . . we live thick and are in each other's way, and stumble over one another. . . ."), it was hard to achieve the distance that is sometimes necessary in order to evaluate objectively.

I loved some of those kids, of course. Who wouldn't? Wonderful kids, eager kids, beautiful kids. They had the yearning of youth and the vigor—to climb Mt. Olympus. Which, in fact, several literally did.

Some, one couldn't love, since they were crooks and boors, and I was troubled, a little, by the administration's apparent policy of minimizing, almost to the point of ignoring, the presence of these vermin.

But some were just funny. Like the breechclouted fellow who wandered into forum late, lay down on his back, and began to do little juggling tricks with a yardstick clutched between the toes of one foot. It was so beautifully childlike, so magnificently nonacademic in the middle of an academic situation, so like Tom Sawyer in church that time, concentrating on the dog and the pinch bug instead of the sermon.

All of these types I have been describing make the same combination you'd find on any land-based campus today? I don't think so, but every reader will have to judge.

I would like to say, though, that the sexual behavior of the young people on the ship seemed to me sane and wholesome. I feel obliged to say this, not because I have been biased about the anti-intellectuals, but because, as I said earlier, the reputation of WCA has an aura of sexual license. What happened was that students followed new patterns of behavior that obtain ashore among the young in the twentieth century in America, especially on campuses. But they made no fuss about it.

Drugs, we heard a lot about. Countries like Turkey can throw you into the pokey for five years without benefit of a phone call, or something like that, if they catch you in possession. The whole ship could have been impounded. So there were warnings and more warnings, and every student was compelled to sign an individual pledge (in his blood, maybe?) something like "I will not do drugs in Turkey." Still, two student users had to be sent home summarily, from Dakar, and on the way back across the Atlantic, the dean received from the customs folks in Florida a less-than-cordial message that said something like "Expect drug gang and dogs—better be clean!" It was not just a WCA problem, of course, it was one of the problems young Americans bring on board a ship because they are young Americans.

I have said that the big problems were the overly rich educational fare and the heterogeneity of the student body. There were two other problems, the distractions and the cost.

Obviously, distractions to academic work were legion on an adventure like that cruise. How could I hold a class, when, once, at the moment when I was explaining Ralph Waldo Emerson's attitude toward Christ, the towered gray walls of the medieval city of Ragusa (Dubrovnik) suddenly loomed outside the portholes? Of course I didn't even try to hold it. And this sort of thing happened again and again.

Because of these little problems, classwork and reading were slighted. Students read, I think, as much as 50 percent less than they would have read in a similar course on a land campus.

And they wrote, most of them, reluctantly, very little, and badly. The written word, beautiful thing that it can be, got pretty well obscured by the auditory and kinesthetic aspects of our education aboard. I used to write on the bulletin board by the dining hall (where they couldn't avoid reading) such words as the names of public squares in Alexandria (*Saad Zaghloul*, for instance—how lovely!) or the crazy-poetic names that Haitians give to public buses (painting the names on the front, along with pictures of the saints and roses and jungle animals and what-not): "L'Infant Prodigue," "Quebec-Air," "Yaweh," "Hawaii Five-O," "Come To Me Baby," "Tout A Jesus."

As to the cost, it was immense. One can't call this a defect of the system. But it was a problem—one that may have killed the program.

What with the increased price of fuel, it cost over $18,000 a day to run that ship. In port, docking fees were from $3,000 to $4,000 a day; in New York, once, it was $10,000 for the day. I never knew the whole truth, but I surmise that Mr. C. Y. Tung, owner of the line, partly subsidized the project—because he believed in it. Goodness knows, our 356 students, each paying only his piddling $4,000, would not seem to be adequate support, and the faculty offer of giving up salaries, in view of actual costs, seems sweet but silly.

Even though the admission standards met accreditation requirements, I presume that the college could have maintained higher ones if it had not been so hard pressed financially.

It's a pity that good education has to cost so much, on ships or on shore. It's a pity that good education becomes, in a capitalistic society, an elitist-exclusivist operation along economic lines.

What conclusions can one come to, then, about the *Good Ship Lollipop* and the meaning of its lovely last voyage?

I myself had a ball and would sell my soul to go again. We need not go into the obvious.

Nor is there any need to go into the question of liberal education—liberalizing education—itself. I will just assume that most people agree that it is a good thing, for instance, for Americans to be a little wiser about the concept "Africa" and to drop some crazy attitudes toward folk who have been getting a bad press (like Arabs and Turks) and to stop believing that all maps of the world have in their centers the continent of North America or that people in the "Near East" themselves (and not the English) invented that term for their homelands. I shall also assume that we have to *feel* our brothers' problems and have to do something about those problems that isn't just charity, because we are living on a volcano.

If all these assumptions are true, then I think the WCA method of inculcating the facts and the feelings, in spite of some obvious defects, is the best method I have ever seen.

I am deeply sorry that the *Lollipop* won't be sailing—for a while anyway.

I wish more people could have the experience. □

Mirabile dictu! Dr. Murray's wish has been granted. Word has reached *Today's Education* that on February 25, 1977, this shipboard educational program will sail again. The Institute for Shipboard Education, in affiliation with a national association of colleges and universities, will administer the program.

Teaching for Thinking: A Piagetian Perspective

By **ANTON E. LAWSON**
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How do children acquire knowledge? How can an awareness of children's thinking abilities and learning processes help teachers?

In the last few years the work of Jean Piaget has received wide attention as a source of insight into questions such as these.

In this article we will introduce three key aspects of Piaget's theory concerning the development of reasoning: (1) the idea of mental structures, (2) the process of self-regulation, and (3) the stages in reasoning patterns. Then we will suggest ways in which teachers can help students develop formal reasoning patterns.

The Idea of Mental Structures. A fundamental idea that underlies all of Piaget's work is the idea of mental structures. Basically, mental structures are hypothesized "mental blueprints" that guide behavior. For example, when five-year-old John is shown stick A and stick B and asked which is longer, he will have no difficulty in pointing out the longer one, stick A. If John is now shown stick B and stick C, which is shorter than B, he will see that B is longer. If he then is asked about the relative lengths of sticks A and C without seeing them next to each other, he will be unable to tell which is longer. If John is given the task at around eight years of age, however, he will be able to conclude correctly that stick A must be longer than stick C. Evidently something has developed in his brain in the intervening years which enables him to make the correct deduction at eight years of age. That something is called a mental structure, a hypothesized structure which organizes the environment for John so that he can function successfully within it.

In the course of intellectual development from infancy to adulthood, mental structures are constructed and reconstructed within the brain. At birth, the infant has few structures with which to begin the process of constructing more useful and adaptive mental structures. For example, a child in the first month of life is able to perceive colors, lines, and angles but is unable to perceive three-dimensional objects. The child must construct the entire visual world from these basic pieces.

The construction of mental structures is a fundamental process in intellectual development. Mental structures provide the basis for our patterns of reasoning, which, in turn, determine how and what we think and how we interact with our environment. In a very real sense, our mental structures and our reasoning patterns represent our knowledge about both the physical world and the world of ideas.

Constructing Mental Structures: The Process of Self-Regulation. Before reading on, try the exercise on the next page. Notice that a number of line figures appear in the accompanying drawing. With a pencil and a book, sit down facing a mirror with the drawing on a table in front of you. Look into the mirror and place your hand so that you can copy the figures into the empty boxes and see your hand, the pencil, and the figures *only* by looking into the mirror. Lay the book on edge if you find it necessary to block direct vision of your hand. Now read and follow the directions printed backward on top of the drawing. Have fun!

The mirror activity required you to construct new mental structures. When you attempted the drawing, you no doubt discovered that your initial behavior misled you. Thus, you were forced to reflect upon and modify this behavior accordingly.

A contradiction to present behaviors, or at least an awareness that they are not entirely adequate, is the first step toward the construction of new mental structures. Piaget calls the process of constructing new mental structures *self-regulation.*

This process is described as unfolding in alternating phases, beginning with an *assimilation* phase. An individual's mental structures assimilate a situation, that is, they give it meaning and initiate a behavior consistent with that meaning. The meaning is determined by present mental structures, and as you no doubt noticed when you attempted the mirror drawings, this meaning may be inappropriate. Inappropriateness produces what is variously called "disequilibrium," "cognitive conflict," or "contradiction." It is, according to Piaget, the prime mover in initiating the second phase—*accommodation.*

Accommodation involves an analysis of the situation in order to locate the source of the difficulty, then formation of new plans of

attack or ways of resolving the difficulty. Just how this is done varies to some degree from person to person.

In doing the mirror puzzle, for example, you may have decided to analyze a complex figure into simple ones. You may have observed the effect of executing the commands "up" and "down" and realized that they were producing movements that went the wrong way. You may have then invented new commands such as "toward me" and "away from me." After a good deal of analysis, searching, and trying, and often with suggestions from others, mental structures gradually accommodate to the new situation, that is, individuals self-regulate and acquire new mental structures.

According to Piaget, the process of self-regulation underlies all intellectual development. The emphasis in this process is on the self, because the process is by its very nature an internal regulation that cannot be circumvented using external agents. This, of course, does not suggest that a teacher cannot provide situations that can help students initiate self-regulation and later help them think through the problem to re-establish equilibrium. But this is getting somewhat ahead of the story. We will return to these important points later.

Stages in Reasoning Patterns. Before we analyze how teachers can effectively initiate disequilibrium and encourage self-regulation, consider the fundamental patterns of reasoning that guide behavior. In general, reasoning patterns are described by Piaget as falling into two major categories, concrete operational and formal operational, depending upon their breadth of applicability and their usefulness in organizing information and solving problems.

Reasoning patterns are called concrete if they can be applied only to familiar objects, events, and situations in the child's experience. Classifying objects into groups such as plants and animals, boys and girls, or odd numbers and even numbers involves a concrete reasoning pattern. Serial ordering—that is, arranging things in order from smallest to largest, lightest to heaviest, or youngest to oldest—is another concrete reasoning pattern. These patterns are certainly basic to organizing experience. We cannot deal with it effectively without them, but their usefulness is limited.

Reasoning patterns with greater breadth of applicability—that is, those used to deal with abstract relationships, hypothesized objects, indirect experiences, and theoretical ideas—are called formal. In terms of the theory and of school learning, Piaget believes that concrete reasoning patterns are prerequisite for the development of formal reasoning patterns. An individual is not meaningfully able to deal on a formal level with any topic without first acquiring a sound experiential base, i.e., without being able to classify and to serially order the phenomena under consideration. Basic to formal thought are reasoning patterns guiding a systematic isolation and analysis of all possible combinations of variables, the control of variables, proportional reasoning, probabilistic reasoning, and hypothetico-deductive reasoning.

As an example of this kind of reasoning, consider the following problem.

Professor Thistlebush, an ecologist, conducted an experiment to determine the number of frogs that live in a pond near the field station. Since he could not catch all the frogs, he caught as many as he could, put a white band around their left hind legs, and then put them back in the pond.

A week later he returned to the pond and again caught as many frogs as he could. Here are the Professor's data: First trip to the pond: 55 frogs were caught and banded. Second trip: 72 frogs were caught; 12 were banded ones.

The Professor assumed that the banded frogs had mixed thoroughly with the unbanded ones, and from his data he was able to approximate the number of frogs that live in the pond. If you can compute this number, please do so and then explain how you calculated your result.

The following three student responses to the problem illustrate the use of concrete and formal reasoning patterns.

A college student, age 21, reasoned: "About 1 out of 6 were banded on the professor's second trip to the pond. If the 55 frogs that mingled with the rest of the frogs were multiplied by 6, you would get 330. This implies that there are 330 frogs in the pond. Unless, uh, how long was it be-

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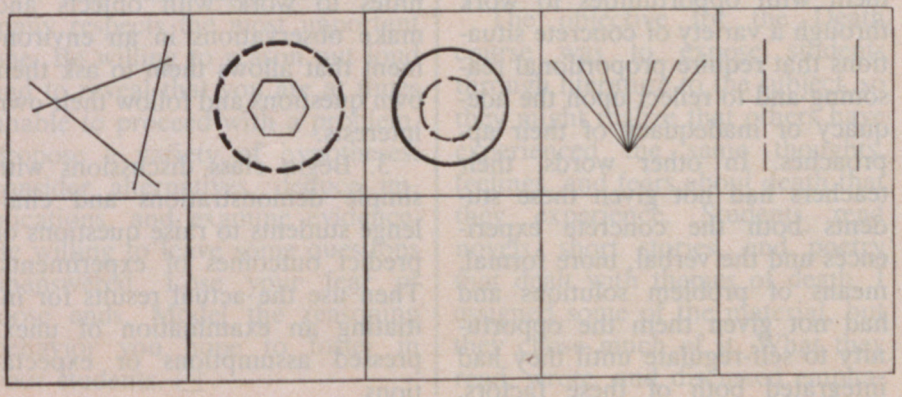

tween the first and second trips?"

The interviewer replied, "One week."

"So then, well, reproduction wouldn't be significant. Then I'll go with 330."

Another college student, age 21, responded: "Sixty frogs that weren't banded the second time. I don't know. That's playing with numbers too much. I'd have to go through and catch 'em the third time."

The interviewer said, "The professor could compute a number."

The second student said, "Just add 60 and 55 together? I wouldn't even want to venture a guess without putting in a third try."

A high school senior, age 18, had even greater difficulty: "Twelve were banded, so I guess I would subtract that. I don't think I am doing this right. That would give 60 that weren't banded. I can't think.

"Multiply? 55? No, that wouldn't work out. How about divide? I'll try it. Well, I know the answer. It's 6. I don't understand the problem.

"Oh, wait a minute. How about just add. Add 55 plus 60. It would be 115. That's the only way I can do it."

These responses illustrate important differences between concrete and formal reasoning patterns applied to the same situation. The formal problem solution (approximately 330 frogs), of course, involves proportional reasoning, one aspect of formal thought. It also involves other important aspects of formal reasoning, such as the ability to recognize and deal with assumptions, i.e., that the frogs mixed thoroughly, that none died or were born between the first and second capture, and so on. Probabilistic reasoning also is evidenced in the recognition of these factors and in the realization that the number 330 is in fact an estimate based upon the likelihood of these assumptions holding true.

The first student demonstrated a formal grasp of the situation. He did the proportion quickly and confidently. His use of terms such as "implies" and "significant" reveals underlying formal reasoning power as does his ability to pick out the implicit assumption that no reproduction had taken place.

Both the other students demonstrated the use of concrete reasoning patterns to solve the problem; in both cases these patterns were inadequate. Of importance in light of Piaget's theory is the fact that these students were aware that their reasoning patterns were inadequate to solve the problem. Piaget says that awareness of the inadequacy of one's own reasoning is a prerequisite for the initiation of self-regulation and the development of more adequate reasoning patterns.

This raises an important educational issue. Both these students had been introduced to proportions in their classes, probably in seventh grade, again in eighth grade, and again in high school. But this introduction was of little use to them when they faced this new problem, because their teachers had not given them the opportunity to self-regulate with the concept when it was introduced.

We cannot be sure, but if we can extrapolate from our own experience, their teachers probably taught them to solve proportional problems by use of an algorithm in a rote fashion. And their teachers probably had not provided them with opportunities to work through a variety of concrete situations that require proportional reasoning and to reflect upon the adequacy or inadequacy of their approaches. In other words, their teachers had not given these students both the concrete experiences and the verbal, more formal, means of problem solutions and had not given them the opportunity to self-regulate until they had integrated both of these factors.

We believe failure on the part of teachers to provide these experiences for students is the major failing of education today. The data that show that 50 to 60 percent of adolescents and adults in this country do not normally reason with formal reasoning patterns are strong evidence that a real educational problem exists. We believe that instruction must be designed with an awareness of both the student's present reasoning patterns and the demands that the subject matter places on these patterns. Only by taking these two factors into account can teachers help students learn to self-regulate and to develop more formal reasoning patterns.

Teaching for Self-Regulation: Some Practical Suggestions. Although some of the following suggestions are not direct consequences of Piaget's theory, we believe they are all compatible with a Piagetian perspective. They have proven useful for encouraging self-regulation in some students, and we offer our suggestions in that spirit.

1. Arrange your teaching sequence so that you begin with concrete ideas defined through demonstrations, examples, and actions. Present more formal definitions of the same ideas to the class at a later time.

2. Use student exploration activities before introducing a new concept. At this time and on other occasions, give students opportunities to work with objects and make observations in an environment that allows them to ask their own questions and follow their own interests.

3. Begin class discussions with simple demonstrations and challenge students to raise questions or predict outcomes of experiments. Then use the actual results for initiating an examination of unexpressed assumptions or expectations.

4. Encourage students to interact with one another during discussions, laboratories, and problem-solving sessions. By learning the viewpoints of others, they will become more aware of their own reasoning. Students who use formal reasoning patterns will serve as role models for those who do not. The latter, because of their more limited understanding, will challenge the formal reasoners' shortcuts in reasoning, thus making them rethink their ideas.

Furthermore, students who would not ask the teacher "stupid" questions may raise those questions with their peers. Then their peers can deal with conceptual difficulties that the concrete thinkers might never have revealed.

5. Ask students to justify their conclusions, predictions, and inferences regardless of whether these are correct or incorrect. "Why are you sure of that?" "What is the evidence?" "How could you explain that to me?" "What other ways of thinking about that problem are there?" are questions that might get them thinking.

6. Try to be as receptive as possible to apparently off-the-track ideas or hypotheses. Don't squelch a timid first attempt, but encourage it by drawing attention to its good or unusual points. Suggest an activity—additional reading, perhaps—to help a student reexamine an inadequate reasoning pattern or preconception. Emphasize the reasons behind an answer rather than the "right answer" itself.

7. Our last suggestion is in many respects the most important one. Be willing to reason out loud and to reveal that you are at times unable to proceed with a problem. Propose a variety of hypotheses, consider alternatives, deduce implications, and examine evidence. Be willing to leave some questions unanswered. Lose your fear of loose ends. Model the reasoning behavior you hope to foster in your students. □

Teaching About Death

By **JUDITH R. HAWKINSON**
English Teacher, Glenrock (Wyoming) High School.

We try to suppress unpleasant thoughts, and for many of us, the most unpleasant one of all is the thought of death—either our own or that of someone close to us. Since death is such a painful subject, we avoid discussing it, try to repress the thought of it, and ignore it until we are faced with it. Death has replaced sex as the forbidden topic.

Why do we use these avoidance mechanisms? Is it because we are afraid to acknowledge our own mortality? Is it because we are afraid of the physical pain that sometimes accompanies death? Or is it just that we fear what we don't know and understand?

To try to help students understand death as the natural end of a life cycle, Glenrock High School initiated a nine-week course entitled Death. This followed a nine-week literature course, Life-Self-Awareness, which helped students understand themselves—including their emotions, values, and motivations.

The objective for the Death course was to expose students through literature to the subject, so they might realize that others have experienced the same thoughts, feelings, and fears about death that they experience. Students read novels, short stories, and poetry that dealt with themes of death. I assigned some of the material, but they chose much of it. What they read, wrote, and discussed emphasized that death is a natural end to a life cycle.

Some books we read were *Death Be Not Proud, Go Ask Alice, Sunshine, Dreamland Lake,* and *Wild in the World,* books that concerned people who faced death and the ways in which they coped with it. We also read two books by Elisabeth Kubler-Ross, *Questions and Answers on Death and Dying* and *On Death and Dying,* which were very helpful in alleviating fears and answering questions. In addition, we read and discussed poetry dealing with death, such as "Thanatopsis," "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard," and "And Death Shall Have No Dominion"—poems that attempt to console human beings about the prospect of their own demise.

To branch out and add some variety to the course, I had students research burial customs of different cultures and societies and give reports on their findings to the class. In doing this research, students found that death takes on different meanings in different societies. The insights they gained gave the students opportunities to examine death in other contexts as well as from the standpoint of their own beliefs.

In addition to reading and writing experiences that are integral parts of any English class, students had the opportunity to hear the following guest speakers:

1. A medical doctor, who explained that death occurs when the human body no longer exhibits specific vital signs.

2. A minister, who discussed the theories of heaven, hell, and life after death.

3. A psychologist, who used a question-answer format to lead a discussion on suicide, especially teenage suicide.

4. A lawyer, who spoke about last wills and testaments.

The students prepared for these visits by doing assignments that gave them some background on each subject. They were receptive to the guest speakers and seemed to learn a great deal from them. One student remarked, "Since the doctor spoke to us, I know that I won't be buried while I'm still half alive."

Even though I knew most of these students from other classes and they knew me, it took about three weeks for them to open up and discuss freely their own fears and experiences with death. Among the topics we discussed were:

How our society treats the subject of death.

Famous people's thoughts on death.

Death as the natural end to a life cycle.

Old age, terminal illness, and euthanasia.

Murder, suicide, and abortion.

Different death rituals, burial customs, and approaches to death.

Medical definition of death.

Theories of afterlife and reincarnation.

Last wills and testaments.

Grief and depression after a death.

The highlight of the course was our visit to a mortuary and cemetery. Many had never been to either place, and they looked forward to the trip with an eager but apprehensive attitude that is typical of the young. For a number of reasons, the trip was a huge success. The funeral director conducted a tour of the facilities that left no unanswered questions in the students' minds.

Afterwards, one girl said, "I was always afraid to ask what happens to people when they die, because someone might think I was weird. But the funeral director explained every step they take from the time you die until you are buried." A boy stated, "The visit to the graveyard and funeral home really blew my head, and I *had* to talk and think about death." (At that point in the course, we all knew each other well enough not to be afraid to express our thoughts or to ask questions, no matter how "stupid" they sounded—which appears to be the most important factor if this type of class is to succeed.)

In spite of the trip's success, we heard comments from others, including faculty, such as "Ugh, how could you teach such a course?" and "How could you take your class *there?*" or "That's sick!" But, since the students had learned to speak freely of death and dying, they not only defended the Death course zealously but tried to enlighten the ignorant about its merits.

The following comments are typical of those the students made at the end of the course:

"I always thought of death as being dark and sinister. Now I realize that death is something that comes to every living creature. There is no escaping it."

"I know I'm still not prepared to die, but I learned that nobody is really prepared for death."

"My grandfather died during the quarter, and the course made it a lot easier for me to accept his death. I'm grateful."

"I think the best part was the open discussions we had in which we shared our fears about death."

"After discussing it with others, death didn't seem like such a terrible happening." □

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Success Story of an Inner-City School

Picture a large inner-city high school with 3,000 students of low socioeconomic status and 220 staff members. Imagine walking the halls and, after your most careful observations, finding few traces of graffiti, a minimum of students lurking about during class time.

Investigate further and learn: This school, which once ranked in reading 24th out of 26 local high schools, advanced to 13th place in one year; student attendance moved from 60 to 78 percent in average daily attendance and is still climbing; gang activities no longer threaten to disrupt the school's program; 40 percent of last year's graduates entered college this fall; and the entire school community shows pride in these accomplishments.

Picture this school, and you will have an accurate description of Simon Gratz High School in North Philadelphia.

The positive changes that are taking place at Gratz are a result of the leadership of a unique principal, Oliver Lancaster, a staff of dedicated teachers, and the cooperation of parents and community workers.

When Dr. Lancaster was appointed principal in 1972, he found that Gratz was plagued with the problems found in most inner-city schools—especially the students' lack of basic skills.

For example, when a young woman who had recently graduated from Gratz was hired as an office clerk, Dr. Lancaster discovered that she could not read, write, or file. A review of her school records revealed that she passed the clerical practices course with a B average.

"Too often," Dr. Lancaster says, "students' grades reflect relatively good attendance, minimal work, and good conduct rather than academic achievement." Dr. Lancaster and his staff began working to reverse that trend. "We made quality performance our number-one goal."

After instituting a system of classroom performance minimums for students tailored to specific courses and student capabilities, Dr. Lancaster informed parents and students of the new requirements. Most parents responded enthusiastically; many students displayed anguish.

According to Dr. Lancaster, "Students began to realize that those of us responsible for their education were serious and that their habits of being relatively nice and coming to class from time to time were no longer enough.

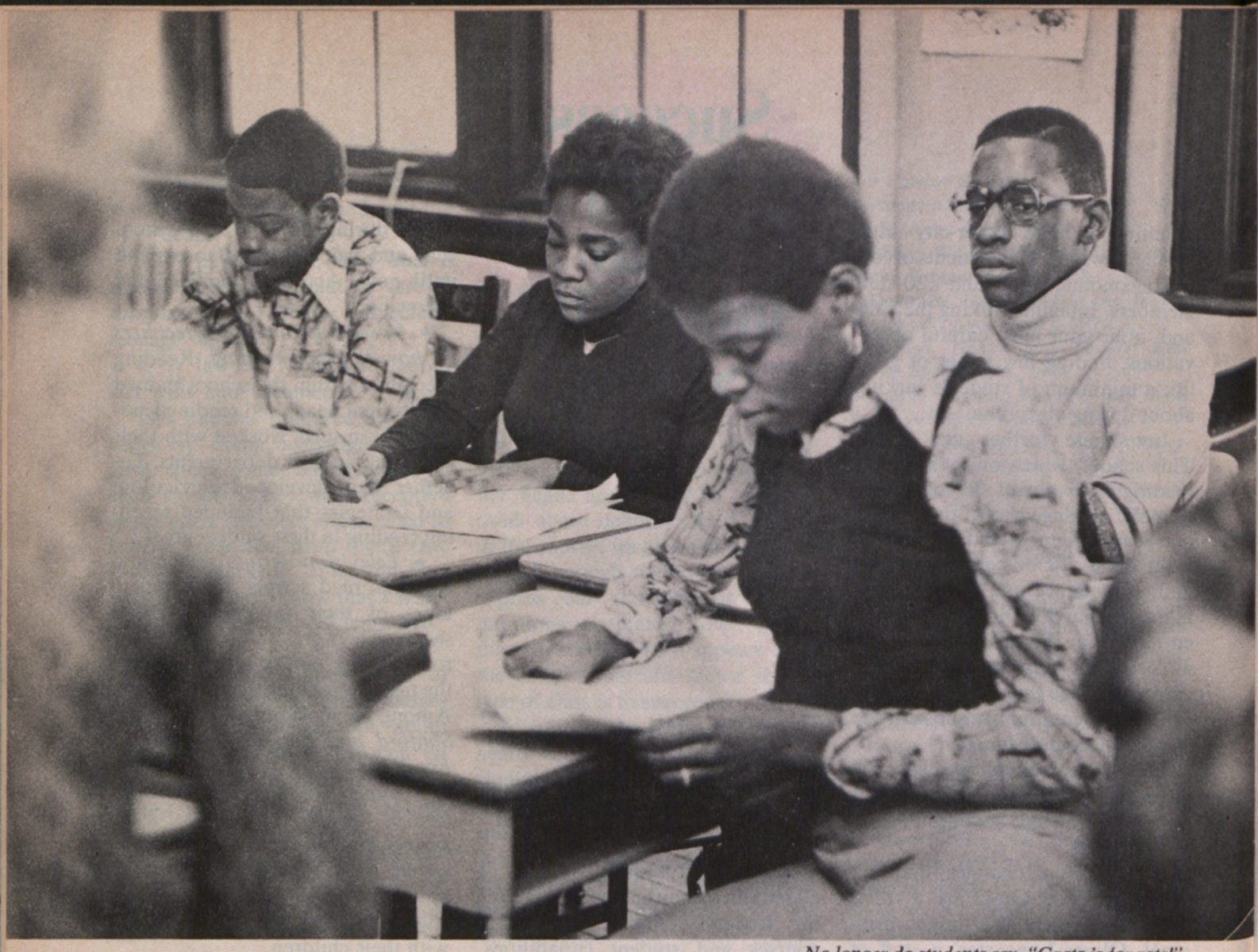
"But it was our responsibility to provide classes that students were eager to attend."

The staff agreed that many problems would be alleviated if students were better readers. Therefore, under the leadership of the English/Reading Department Head, Richard Robinson, Gratz instituted a reading program that provided activities in all subject areas. The program began during the 1972-73 school year and has continued to expand until now. Activities included the following:

- *In-service training for teachers on how to teach reading.* Reading specialists within the school trained department heads and reading leaders who, in turn, worked with their colleagues in their departments. Together they developed curriculum and strategies that included teaching reading in their subject areas.
- *Television scripts and tapes.* Students read scripts and listen to tapes of their favorite television shows. Their pre- and post-reading, role playing, and discussion make the task stimulating and productive. Among the most popular shows are *Sanford and Son* and *All in the Family*.
- *Super Bee.* This is a modification of the old spelling bee. Each spring, students receive packets (designed to be a challenge on designated reading levels) for summer study. Parents are asked to work with their children.

In the fall, English classes hold a spell-down; by midwinter, finalists compete. Students, teachers, and administrators wear Super Bee buttons. The excitement and newsworthiness of the project enhance vocabulary appreciation and spelling. Winners, who are not always the most advanced students, are rewarded with gifts and monetary prizes.

- *Skill of the Month Series.* All teachers place emphasis on a specific skill. Bulletin boards throughout the school serve as reminders that a particular skill is being studied. Some of the skills are finding the main idea in a paragraph, learning spelling techniques, using the parts of a book, studying properly, making use of charts and graphs, and alphabetizing.
- *WOW Week.* During World of



No longer do students say, "Gratz is for rats!"

Work (WOW) Week, students practice applying for jobs. Under the guidance of teachers and counselors, they fill out job applications and make résumés. Each student receives a WOW folder, attractively designed by Gratz students, for his or her own personal use. Business leaders come in to critique the students' work.

• *CARE.* The Content Area Reading Emphasis (CARE) program is for students who come to Gratz reading at a preprimer to third grade level. CARE teachers are trained in reading, give small-group instruction, and attempt to relate their teaching to the student's rostered classes. Three other dimensions of the program include: transcendental meditation, Outward Bound, and peer teaching at the elementary school level.

• *Teacher in-service training on administering tests.* Richard Robinson administered a standardized test to teachers. He intentionally gave an inadequate explanation of the test, provided inaccurate information about the time allowed, and for the most part, ruined the total testing process. Teachers became adamant and refused to complete the test. When they were told that Mr. Robinson purposely confused them, they understood his motivation and rededicated themselves to providing students with well-planned, uniform examination procedures.

• *Student training on taking tests.* Using old tests, students read and follow directions and, under supervision, correct their errors. What they often find is that many errors result from their inability to understand the directions.

While working with reading programs, teachers are constantly tackling other problems. To prevent student tardiness to class, they agreed to make the first 10 minutes of each class period vital to the learning process. Teachers use their ingenuity in determining how to begin class periods. One class might begin with a pop quiz; another may begin with the teacher's giving assignments. The method works. Students move swiftly from one class

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to another to avoid missing important work.

It is important for students to see worth in what they are being taught. With this thought in mind, courses are being restructured.

At one time the automotive class served as a dumping ground for students who did not fit into the regular program. But under the new plan, students elect to take the automotive course. Gratz Automotive Sciences, as it is now called, is a popular course of study.

Reading teachers use automotive manuals, magazines, and brochures as basic texts; English teachers build learning activities around the production of a monthly newsletter that gives tips on driving, car maintenance, and repair. Automobile specifications, formulas, speeds, distances, insurance, budgets, and taxes are used in teaching math concepts. Science, social studies, driver education, and art are correlated in the automotive program. Eventually, the academic classes for automotive students will be housed in the same building with the automotive classes.

As another incentive, Gratz has acquired a secondhand car that students are rebuilding for competitive and display purposes.

Allied Health students are those who show interest in any profession in the health field. Seniors study physics, chemistry, and the kinds of mathematics needed in the health field. They take trips to pharmacies, hospitals, and clinics to observe the work and to talk with employees. Like the automotive classes, Allied Health classes are related to the basic subjects.

One such class is Child Growth and Development. Eight preschool children from the neighborhood are in class four days a week. In working with preschoolers, students aid in the development of these children and at the same time learn about growth patterns. One day a week is reserved for discussion of their work with the children.

Potential college students who are not yet interested in a specific field are designated as Motivation students. There is a healthy competitive spirit between the Allied Health and Motivation students. The two groups check to see which one has the most honor students, best attendance, and fewest discipline problems. Because of this spirit of competition, students discipline themselves.

Other specific courses of study include a Clerical Skills Laboratory, Consumer Affairs, and a Television Communications Course. All students are studying the basic subjects, but they are provided with several avenues by which to pursue these subjects.

At one time, Gratz students' unofficial motto for the school was "Gratz is for rats!" A far different attitude apparently prevails today. Taking the lead in building school pride is the Student Government Association (SGA).

One of the big events of the school year is the nomination, campaign, and election of SGA officers. Tamar Davis, last year's SGA president, spoke proudly of her organization. "We work as a liaison between administration and students, but that is only a part of our job. We are striving to make our school the best!"

A fire that destroyed homes in the community prompted Tamar to start a clothing drive for the fire victims. Students were eager to help.

Another SGA project was to have the walls repaired in the nurse's office. Through SGA, students work to make their building attractive and police themselves to keep it that way.

Parents are encouraged to visit Gratz regularly. Open House, a form of parent-teacher conferences, is widely publicized. While teachers and parents review students' progress and discuss report cards, students work as baby-sitters for younger children.

One of Gratz's major successes has been to involve the community in the school. Counselors work with businesses to find job opportunities for youths. After-school programs are coordinated with school efforts.

The Tioga Community Youth Center (TCYC)/Gratz Learning Center works closely with Gratz School. Any child may be a part of TCYC programs, but special attention is given to potential dropouts, behavior problems, and gang activists. (Cooperation continues, although TCYC recently won its independence as a private school.)

Planned after-school activities keep children off the streets, working together, and getting to know each other. Parents are invited to TCYC activities. Successful student efforts at school are rewarded at TCYC with programs and special recognition. Most important, reading is incorporated in the Youth Center's activities.

Recent articles have praised the work of the Gratz community. As a result, the school is constantly receiving requests from persons who want to visit. "Sometimes I am reluctant to grant these requests," Dr. Lancaster says, "because I believe that they expect to be able to point to some dynamic, innovative force in the school. All they will find, I'm afraid, is a dedicated staff and working students—a typical school."

Evidently Dr. Lancaster views a typical school as one that is effecting positive changes in a once decaying school community; stimulating the interest of turned-off parents; gaining the support of community businesses and organizations; showing students that they can perform well and requiring that they do; working for school pride, for educational excellence.

Picture a typical school; picture Simon Gratz High School.

—Marian S. Clayton, *editorial associate,* Today's Education.

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By SUSAN A. ROTHENBERG
Title I Teacher, New Providence (New Jersey) Public Schools, and Graduate Student in Student Personnel Services.

Anorexia nervosa, self-inflicted starvation, is a psychological malady which is becoming increasingly prevalent in the United States. An adolescent illness, its increasing incidence in our school population demands a new teacher awareness and understanding in order to maintain positive relationships with an anorectic student and her parents. Naiveté on the part of the educator can lead to student resistance, alienation, and a general deterioration of relationships. Often, the sensitive yet unwitting teacher of an anorectic student will find himself/herself in a quandary such as the following:

As her seventh graders return from Christmas vacation, Mrs. Alder notices that Kathy, one of her most conscientious students, has lost quite a bit of weight. An attractive, friendly 12-year-old, Kathy volunteers when questioned that she has gone on a diet because she is much too fat. To Mrs. Alder's comment that she is now quite thin, Kathy protests that she must lose still more weight.

By March, Mrs. Alder is seriously concerned and sends Kathy to the school nurse. Originally weighing 115 pounds, Kathy now weighs 95 pounds. She looks terribly thin and frail but maintains all her usual activities with amazing vigor.

Unable to understand the parents' apparent lack of concern, Mrs. Alder contacts them by telephone in an attempt to pressure them into confronting the situation. The parents refuse to meet with Mrs. Alder, saying that Kathy is just "overdoing it," that they are doing all they can, and that they have made plans to take Kathy to their doctor.

Mrs. Alder's renewed attempts

to reason with Kathy prove futile. Kathy, once so eager to please, has now become infuriatingly obstinate.

By May, Kathy is down to 75 pounds. She is skeletal and listless. Efforts to discuss this emergency situation with the parents or to gain their permission for medical consultations are unsuccessful.

Despite all her efforts, Mrs. Alder was unable to do anything helpful or supportive for Kathy. However, had she recognized Kathy's problem as anorexia nervosa and had she had the knowledge and guidelines necessary to be supportive and empathetic with Kathy, the situation might have been different.

Anorexia nervosa is a psychological illness whose sufferers have a distinct profile. Eighty to 90 percent of those affected are female. Most are adolescents or teenagers who come from middle-class and upper-class homes where both family closeness and ambition are valued. Anorectic individuals are usually intelligent, industrious individuals who strive to please parents. The terms *perfectionist* and *overachiever* apply here.

Each year in the United States about 65 deaths due to anorexia and other feeding disturbances are reported. These are usually cases that were misdiagnosed and/or mismanaged at the early stages. The fatal cases are estimated to amount to about 10 percent of all cases. Many more lead the restricted life of a chronic invalid. Self-starvers can lose 25 to 50 percent of body weight in a relentless pursuit of thinness. They are morbidly obsessed with food: Diet, weight, and fat preempt all other concerns.

Their dieting self-discipline is rigid. If an occasional eating binge occurs, anorectics may resort to self-induced vomiting in a renewed determination to correct what they consider "a loss of control." Their remarkable energy, vigor, and hyperactivity are manifestations of a strict, self-imposed regimen of calorie-burning activities.

Their self-awareness is defective. A delusional perception of the body image is common; even when emaciated, they see themselves as still harboring disgusting, frightening fat. Their interpretation of bodily stimuli is also inaccurate. They may not relate intense hunger pains to the body's need for food, or they may even block them out of consciousness.

Most explanations concerning the etiology of anorexia nervosa refer to attempts to cope with the frightening demands and responsibilities of approaching maturity. Anorectic individuals are often described as being in a desperate struggle for control of their lives. Feeling inadequate and ineffective, they seek to establish a competent, independent identity.

Subconsciously, the body comes to represent life, and the anorectic seeks absolute and reassuring control of it. Anorectic girls are sometimes described as being morbidly afraid of their own sexuality and actively rejecting womanhood. By reducing body weight, they restore themselves to childlike proportions, become amenorrheic, and reverse normal physical maturation.

Whatever the etiology, anorexia nervosa is a complex disturbance which affects the individual both psychologically and somatically. With this in mind, let us consider how teachers can help anorectic pupils:

Remember that psychiatric help is the primary objective for those with anorexia nervosa.

Be aware that you may be the first to recognize an anorectic pupil. Recognition of a suspected case carries with it the responsibility of cautiously transmitting the information to the principal only. Plans for parental and medical contacts should originate here.

Allow the pupil to control the relationship with you. Be supportive, showing sensitivity to needs and acceptance of behavior.

Take off the pressure academically. Show that you respect the pupil's judgment concerning the quantity and the quality of work.

Avoid discussions about food, eating habits, and nutrition. Persuasion, reason, and pressure have no effect on the anorectic individual.

Be empathetic with the parents. Avoid judgmental references and indicate your belief that they are doing their best.

Define your role and accept your limitations in helping the anorectic pupil. □

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Never Underestimate Your Influence

By MARILYN VAN DERBUR
A former Miss America (and member of Phi Beta Kappa); Motivation Specialist; Corporate Consultant.

If, in future years, your students are asked who their favorite teachers were, will you be among them? Have you ever wondered what your students will remember about you? That you took time to explain? Loved your subject matter? That you cared, really cared, about them as individuals? Expected them to do well, trusted them, had fun with them? That their self-confidence and their dignity and their feelings were more important to you than the science projects or the compositions?

Whenever I go into schools, I ask the students, "Who is your favorite teacher in this school and why?" Once, at a faculty meeting, I inquired if Mr. Pike was there. When he raised his hand, I told him what

one of his students had written about him. I said, "Probably the author is someone you would never suspect—maybe a student you think isn't even listening. But you'll never know who wrote it, because there are no names on the papers. Anyway, this is it: 'Mr. Pike is my favorite teacher. He's my hardest teacher, but he's made me love history.' "

Here are a few more comments from eighth graders in another school:

"Mr. Doty, because he doesn't give assignments just so the kids have something to do."

"I like Mrs. Hicks. She doesn't have certain people she favors more than others. She treats us all alike and almost equal to her, in a way."

"Mrs. Burns, because if you did something wrong, she would let you explain why you did. She would trust you to do things."

"Miss Baughman, because she tries to understand me. She really cares what happens to me and my friends."

Let me share one of my favorite stories with you: In his later years, Cecil B. De Mille was asked what had been the most inspiring moment of his life. He told of the time when he was 10 years old and living in a small town in New Jersey. A well-known minister had been asked to preach at 8:00 a.m. every morning during Holy Week. On Wednes-

day morning, it was cold, dark, and pouring down rain as young Cecil made his way to church. He got there at a quarter to eight. The church was empty, so he walked up front and sat down. By five minutes of eight, he felt very uncomfortable, because nobody else had come.

At 8:00 sharp, the minister, impressive in size and carriage, walked out on the platform, glanced at the empty chairs and then at the 10-year-old boy. Said De Mille, "I fully expected him to suggest we meet the next morning. Instead, in all of his dignity and reverence, he began the service. When it was time for the collection, he brought the collection plate down, and as I carefully put my nickel in, he put his hand on my head. I'll never forget the way he touched me. I felt a strange feeling of strength flow through his hand into me.

"He must have been disappointed and embarrassed, but he never showed it. . . . When it was time for the sermon, he gave the entire sermon just to me. . . . It was the most inspiring moment of my life."

Now, I believe shy 10-year-old Cecil B. De Mille left church that day without saying a word to the minister—no applause, no thanks, no warm smile. And I believe the minister never, ever knew what he had done for one boy. And I believe that sort of thing is going on in every classroom in America.

Five years ago, I felt a compelling need to develop a minicourse for students that would help them develop a positive self-image. When I began working with students in their classrooms, I walked in and saw indifference and apathy, and I was depressed. At the end of the first day, I told my husband, "Zero! I poured my heart out to them, and they just looked at me." But then I began reading the students' comments ("I won't drop out." "I'm going to try harder."), and they never fooled me again.

In the first class, one boy who had been bused in sat over next to the window. There I was, giving my all, and he was just looking out the window. Once in a while, he'd look at me, almost with hostility, and then out the window again.

I wondered what it would take to get through to that boy. At the end of the class, when I asked the students to write "What These Ideas Meant to Me," he didn't even have paper and pencil.

I gave him a piece of paper and a red pen, which was all I had. I didn't mean to set him up, but I *do* know what he wrote that day. Only one answer was in red ink. He wrote, "I was thinking of cutting out and going to California, but since you rapped with us today I might just stay and get my education. I just don't know." He wasn't merely looking out the window. He wasn't looking at me with hostility. He was *listening* to every word.

On Parents' Night, one mother wrote, "My daughter would not take her eyes off you for fear she would miss a word." I never saw that girl in class; I saw girls doodling and fidgeting. I never saw a girl sitting on the edge of her chair hanging onto every pearl of wisdom.

One parent wrote me a personal letter in which she said, "Your classes are affecting my son's life." I could hardly wait to get to school next day to see which boy it was. I looked at the seating charts. He wasn't in the first class. In the second, there he was! *That* boy? Short, overweight—the one in the corner in the last seat. The one who rocks his chair back and forth the entire period. I had no idea he'd even been listening.

What teachers *think* they know about students can affect how they teach, grade, and react.

One research team found that when teachers ask a question, they wait longer for an answer if they think the student is bright. Other researchers observed that when teachers believed they were working with bright students, they were more likely to smile at them, lean toward them, look at them directly, and nod approvingly.

Teachers even react to students' names. Two psychologists gave fifth and sixth graders' compositions, judged to be of equal quality, to two groups of teachers, telling the first group that Karen, David, Lisa, and Michael wrote the papers and the second group that Bertha, Elmer, Adelle, and Hubert wrote them. The group-one compositions received an average of a full grade more than the group-two compositions.

W. Victor Beez told half the teachers he worked with in a Head Start program that the children were dull; the other half, that the children were bright. Most of the teachers who thought the youngsters were bright attempted to teach them eight or more words. Very few of those who thought they were teaching dull pupils tried to teach them that many words.

Often, the teacher who is etched forever in students' lives is the one who pulls, pushes, prods, and demands that they reach beyond their grasp. But most important—makes them *believe they can do it.* Makes them *believe in themselves.* (You who are of that ilk will probably never have *proof.*)

Students aren't telling you. Parents aren't telling you. What do too many of you have in common with that minister who gave the sermon just for Cecil B. De Mille? No applause, no thanks, no warm smile.

Believe in your impact. Believe with your heart and soul. *Know* that you can affect, influence, even change lives. Being a teacher can be the most exciting, rewarding, important profession of all when you truly believe. □

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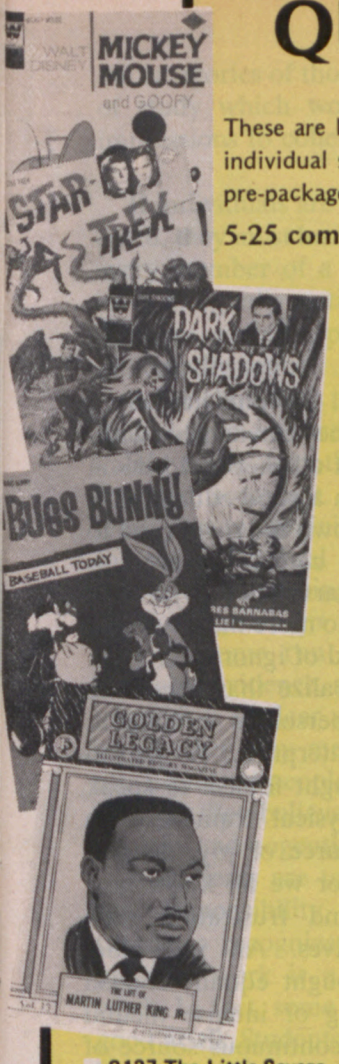

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The Myth of the Royal Road

By STEVEN M. CAHN
Chairman, Department of Philosophy, University of Vermont, Burlington.

Euclid, the Greek mathematician, was once asked whether there was an easy way to master his monumental geometric treatise, the *Elements*. His answer: "There is no royal road to geometry." What Euclid said about geometry might equally be applied to every branch of serious human endeavor. Whether one sets out to become skilled at cooking, golf, violin-playing, or chemistry, there is no royal road to mastery.

It is easy to have great ambitions. What is difficult is to fulfill them. So many of us go through life aware of our talents and abilities but somehow never really developing them. We are left consoling ourselves with the thought, "I could have if only. . . ."

One example of such undeveloped talent often comes to my mind. Many years ago I happened to attend a summer camp that had a strong athletic program. Although many good athletes were there, one in particular stood out. He was only 15 years old, but already his athletic prowess was remarkable.

Since he possessed few interests outside sports and because baseball was the game he loved most of all, everyone assumed he would one day be a major league star.

I heard nothing further about him until several years ago when I saw him at a camp reunion. He was playing in an old-timer's baseball game and quite naturally was the object of everyone's attention. He was still by far the best player but now overweight and considerably slower than in his camp days. Later I talked with him and asked what he had been doing. As it turned out, he had played in the minor leagues for a short while but soon had given up baseball and become a construction worker. His voice was quiet as of one whose dream had long since faded.

When I asked a counselor at the camp who had known him all his life how such a superb athlete could have failed, this was the reply: "I know he loved to play baseball, but that's all he would do—play it. He wasn't willing to work at it. Fielding ground balls at training camp may be fun for an hour, but by the second hour the fun disappears. By the third hour the strain begins to tell, and the field empties. By the fourth hour just a few are still practicing. They're the only ones who have a real chance to be major leaguers. The rest better find something else to do."

That ability to work which the counselor mentioned is a prime requisite for the achievement of worthwhile goals, for, as noted previously, the road to mastering any significant skill is not an easy one. Distractions, confusions, and difficulties abound. Only the individual who persists in the face of such obstacles can succeed, and talent will not suffice where self-discipline is lacking.

A continuing crisis of standards in American higher education is very largely the result of attempting to provide students with a sound liberal education without requiring of them the necessary self-discipline and hard work. Students have been led to believe they can achieve without effort, that all they need do in order to obtain a good education is skip merrily down the royal road to learning. The catch, however, is that what appears to be a royal road to learning is no more than a detour to the dead end of ignorance.

We must realize that becoming an educated person is a difficult, demanding enterprise. A person would be thought foolish to speak of intense physical training as a continuous source of joy, delight, and ecstasy, for we all know how much pain and frustration such training involves. An individual should be thought equally foolish when speaking of intense mental exertion as a continuous source of joy, delight, and ecstasy, for such effort also involves pain and frustration. It is painful to have one's ignorance exposed, and it is frustrating to be baffled by intellectual subtleties. Of course, there is joy in learning just as there is joy in sport. But the joy in both cases is a result of overcoming rigorous challenges, and such joy cannot be experienced without toil.

It is not easy to read intelligently and think precisely. It is not easy to speak fluently and write clearly. It is not easy to study a subject carefully and know it thoroughly. But these abilities are the foundation of a sound education.

As Jacques Barzun noted in *The House of Intellect*, "Of what use to even an unusually bright pupil are all the visual aids, paperback books, field trips, documentary movies, special lectures, and 'opportunities for independent work' if he lacks

the categories of thought and habits of study which would enable his impressions to cohere?"

If individuals are to become educated, they must learn that although every member of a democratic society is equally entitled to express opinions, not all expressed opinions are equally sound.

Some claims are true, some false. Some arguments are valid, some invalid. Some hypotheses are well-founded, some not. A student must learn that maintaining and defending an intellectual position is not the same as choosing a favorite color. Some positions are self-contradictory, some run counter to the available evidence, and some are so vague it is unclear what they mean or whether they mean anything at all. Educated people do not simply believe; they believe what they can explain and cogently defend.

If students are to learn intellectual responsibility, they must be taught to recognize that not every piece of work is a good piece of work. In fact, some work is just no good at all. Students may be friendly, cooperative, and even sensitive to the needs of humankind, but they may nevertheless turn in a muddled economics paper or an incompetently researched laboratory report. And that they mean well is no reason why they should not be criticized for an inadequate performance.

But such criticism is rare nowadays. As John R. Searle pointed out in *The Campus War,* "In the universities one sees a growing reluctance to insist on a high level of performance even from those who are capable of producing it. The current pretense that spontaneous and sincere incompetence is acceptable manages to demean both the teacher and the pupil."

Some educators, however, fear that if students' work is criticized and the students are forced to work harder, they will come to hate what they are studying and consequently learn nothing. Of course, students may be criticized in such a way that they no longer have any desire to continue learning, and such destructive criticism must be avoided. But there is such a thing as constructive criticism that makes clear to students that their work is not what it should be, yet at the same time stimulates them to try harder, do better, and learn more.

It is one thing to say to a student, "Your work is awful. Why are you so stupid?" It is quite another to say, "You haven't yet caught on to the technique of writing clearly, and you're just not communicating what you want to say. Try again and I'm sure if you're more careful, you can do much better." The first sort of criticism is to be avoided. But the second is vital to intellectual growth, for an educated person must be able to recognize the difference between clarity and obscurity, accuracy and inaccuracy, knowledge and ignorance.

Despite the fact that obtaining a sound liberal education is such a hard task, the majority of today's students do well in their college courses with relative ease.

The obvious implication of rising grades at a time when barriers to attending college are being lowered is that comparatively few of our colleges are fulfilling their vital function in a democratic society: providing their students with a sound liberal education.

What specifically accounts for this failure? Just why do students find their college work such an empty challenge?

The source of much of the problem is the increasingly widespread acceptance among faculty and administrators of the erroneous and dangerous educational principle that students should not be required to do any academic work they prefer not to do.

According to this principle, which has come to dominate the educational policy of our colleges, if students prefer not to study science or history or literature, they can attain their degree without studying any science, history, or literature. If they prefer not to take examinations, they can either make special arrangements with their instructors or else choose their courses from among the ever-increasing number that involve no examinations.

If they prefer that their work not be graded, they can arrange in many or all of their courses to receive an undifferentiated pass or fail. Indeed, some schools now offer courses impossible to fail. Attendance is not required, examinations are not required, papers are not required. Nothing is required. Registering for the course guarantees academic credit. The day may not be far off when a high school student's acceptance to college ensures a college diploma. Is it any wonder, then, that students find it easy to do college work? The only wonder is that any work at all is still going on.

Why is this trend prevalent? More specifically, why has the principle of student license been so easily accepted?

In my view, those educators who have not acquiesced in this matter solely out of fear of student reprisals have done so at least in part because they have forgotten the educational justification for structuring a student's course of study. Requirements, examinations, and grades have for so long been virtually uncontested aspects of higher education that their existence has required no defense.

The time has come to remind ourselves of the grounds for making demands on students and to expose the fallacious thinking that underlies the myth of the royal road. □

This article has been adapted from a chapter of *The Eclipse of Excellence* by Steven M. Cahn, Public Affairs Press.

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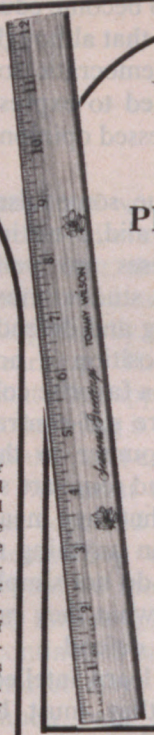

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THE SEVEN CARDINAL PRINCIPLES REVISITED

In 1972, the National Education Association established a Bicentennial Committee charged with developing a "living commemoration of the principles of the American Revolution." This 200th anniversary celebration of the Declaration of Independence was to focus on the next 100 years of education in an interdependent global community.

The initial work of the Committee culminated in the *NEA Bicentennial Ideabook*. Among its ideas was that of developing a definitive volume to "contain a reframing of the cardinal principles of education and recommendations for a global curriculum." After recognizing the importance of the original cardinal principles, which were published in 1918, the Committee made the point that "today, most policy statements about education are obsolete; education taken as a whole is not adequate to the times and too seldom anticipates the future."

A report to be issued by the NEA proposing cardinal premises for the twenty-first century is the direct and immediate outgrowth of the Bicentennial Committee's belief that "educators around the world are in a unique position to bring about a harmoniously interdependent global community based on the principles of peace and justice."

Early in September 1975, a 19-member Preplanning Committee[1] began the task of recasting the seven cardinal principles of education by developing 26 guidelines for the project.

While Committee members did not reach a consensus on every point,

they did generally agree that the opinions of a panel of distinguished world citizens, competent educators, and youth should be recorded on tape and incorporated in the report; that heed should be given to the geographic divisions and ethnic fabric of both American and world culture; that conservative as well as liberal opinions from persons in a variety of disciplines should be gathered; and that Panel members' views of the future and the educational changes it suggested should be obtained.

In addition, the planning group noted that any reports resulting from reexamination of the cardinal principles, however useful they might be, would not automatically become NEA policy statements, since such statements are an Association function.

During the planning period, the Preplanning Committee nominated nearly 250 persons for the 30 or more interviews that were planned originally. The Committee then screened those nominees to reduce the number to a more manageable size. After Committee members had studied this smaller list, they selected the 15 persons whose views they believed would be especially reliable, interesting, and influential. Guided by these stated preferences, the project staff and representatives of the NEA then selected the persons to be taped.

When approached, most nominees were pleased to participate in the interviews. Beginning in mid-September, a total of 48 Panel members[1] and approximately 95 youth (most of them in their junior or senior years of secondary school) summarized their views—all but five of them on tape. The Panel responded to these three questions:[2]

In broad terms, and barring such catastrophes as nuclear war, what are some of the characteristics of the most probable world you foresee by the twenty-first century?

In view of this image of the future, what imperative skills should education seek to develop? Also, in anticipation of the twenty-first-century world, what premises should guide educational planning?

Have the original seven cardinal principles of education retained their merit? If so, what are the new ways in which they should now be interpreted, amended, or applied in anticipation of changing social, economic, and political conditions in the world community?

Persons responding to these questions invariably spoke at length; interviews lasted from 25 minutes to almost two hours.

Appearing on the following pages is a section of the report dealing with the famous seven cardinal principles and their pertinence today. Marginal quotes are relevant statements from some of the panelists who were interviewed by Project Chairman Harold G. Shane of Indiana University in the preparation of the report. Copies of the full report may be ordered from NEA Publishing. See page 72.

Of all NEA-sponsored studies, probably none has been more visible, more widely studied and quoted, or more remembered for its impact than the 1918 report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in which the seven cardinal principles made their first appearance. The decision of the NEA Bicentennial Committee to study and possibly to reframe these principles is eloquent testimony to their enduring role as an important body of objectives or goals for American education.

Established in 1913, the Commission was destined to carry American education in new directions. For one thing, the membership included several junior professors who were innovative "young rebels" of the era. For another, it included seasoned, tough-minded practitioners as well.

The Commission agreed that "secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available," adding that these factors "are by no means static."[3]

In effect, the Commission accepted preparation for effective living rather than preparation for the college or university as a guideline and, in response to the massive social and economic developments of the times, rather substantially rewrote the rule book for United States education with the implications for educational change which they identified.

While space precludes a detailed description of the discussions and conclusions out of which the cardinal principles were born, it is important to note that they were intended to help achieve "the ideal of democracy that the individual and society may find fulfillment each in the other."[4] After reaching this conclusion, the Commission proceeded to analyze certain human activities–family, vocational, civic–and to identify seven objectives for the education of every American boy and girl: *(1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.*

In 1927, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers incorporated the seven cardinal principles in its permanent platform. Subsequently, the Congress published a booklet[5] that interpreted and slightly rephrased some of the principles.

This source and the original report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education were used to determine the meanings that had attached themselves to the cardinal principles during the decade following their proclamation. By 1927, according to the National Congress, it had "become increasingly apparent that these (cardinal principles) are the objectives not only of the high school, but of all education." The principles also were seen to be interwoven "as the intricate pattern of life itself is interwoven."[6]

Are the seven cardinal principles still valid? Those among the readers of *Today's Education* who recall the principles with nostalgia and affection will be pleased to learn that all save a few members of the NEA Bicentennial Panel felt that the seven goals have retained their usefulness and their importance even after the passage of nearly 60 years.[7]

Individual schools try to take on too many tasks at once. . . . We may do a far better job as educators by lowering our sights–paradoxical as that might sound.

–Theodore R. Sizer

I see the seven cardinal principles becoming skills for survival.

–Donald Blakeslee

I would suggest two major premises. One is that there should be increased emphasis on lifelong learning. The second imperative is that we be a great deal more flexible about in-and-out education.
—Helen D. Wise

At the same time, educators who see a need for new goals and directions that anticipate a millennium can take comfort from and find satisfaction in the fact that the Bicentennial Panel also felt that the old meanings attached to the cardinal principles were no longer adequate for learning and living in an interdependent human community.

Some points the Commission made in 1918 serve to illustrate an outlook that now seems outdated. For example, in interpreting the cardinal principle of "worthy home membership," the Commission stated that women, even "those planning for higher institutions," should have greater exposure to the household arts, since the traditional college preparatory curriculum was seen as "incongruous with the actual need and future responsibilities of girls."[8]

The Commission associated the command of fundamental processes with "reading, writing, arithmetical computations, and the elements of oral and written expression." It construed health to mean the inculcation of "health habits," "a love for clean sport," and "physical activities" in schools where the surroundings "conform to the best standards of hygiene and sanitation."[9]

Yet the original statement of principles contains some interesting examples of prescience that suggest the unusual thoughtfulness of the men and women who drew up the 1918 report. "Geography," we are told, "should show the interdependence of men while it shows their common dependence on nature," and "the ideals of American democracy and loyalty to them should be a prominent aim of civic education."[10] A further comment on civic education needs rather little recasting to adapt it to the world of 1976:

> Civic education should consider other nations also. As a people we should try to understand their aspirations and ideals that we may deal more sympathetically and intelligently with the immigrant coming to our shores, and have a basis for a wiser and more sympathetic approach to international problems. Our pupils should learn that each nation, at least potentially, has something of worth to contribute to civilization, and that humanity would be incomplete without that contribution.[11]

Several members of the Bicentennial Panel not only addressed themselves to revising the principles for use in the years ahead but took time to analyze and to speculate about them.[12] Some of the interesting and important points they made follow:

1. The original cardinal principles do not distinguish between the general responsibilities for education and those that are best assumed by or shared with agencies such as the church, the community, and the family. Health, ethical character, worthy home membership, leisure activities, and civic skills are influenced by or are influential in other arenas of life. The principles overpromised what the schools could do. We must now talk more sensibly about what schooling can actually accomplish.

2. The original principles did not anticipate how much learning would be required in the world of 1976. Now we must look at the total learning system. Except for literacy and, possibly, voca-

tional efficiency, the cardinal principles are tasks of educational agencies of the total society.

3. The principles, quite understandably, did not allow for the increasing need for lifelong adult education.

These three statements do not imply that the principles have lost validity. They do, however, point to the need for reexamining and updating them. In the context of these remarks, attention is now directed to changes in the cardinal principles that Panelists felt the passing years have made necessary.

1 HEALTH

The original statement of the cardinal principles indicates that in 1918 the objective of health was to be sought through health instruction, inculcation of health habits, and physical activities. By 1927, mental and emotional fitness had been added, and the objective was restated to read "Health and Safety." The role of the home was mentioned along with the community's responsibility for sanitation and control of disease and for pure air, playgrounds, and parks. Teachers were admonished to keep children clean, to train them in health habits, and to arrange for physical examinations.

In 1976, the NEA Bicentennial Panelists made much more sophisticated statements regarding the health objective. They directed attention to the need for healthy interpersonal and intercultural attitudes, for instance, and said children and youth need to be made aware that overconsumption can be as debilitating as underconsumption and that both can affect one's behavior in adverse ways. Also, they recommended a greater "social action" role for schools and other educational agencies in the health realm through directing learners' attention to the unhealthful aspects of United States life-styles and to environmental conditions, which are in some way linked to from 60 to 90 percent of the cancer in the United States.

The Panelists mentioned stress as a source of health problems and recommended a knowledge of "stress points" as a part of health education. They extended an understanding of dietary needs and problems beyond simple nutrition education to include such matters as dangers in food additives, in pollution, and in sanitary standards that are so low as to be inimical to health. And they urged continued efforts to improve drug education along with frank consideration, at appropriate age levels, of healthful family living.

Health education also should help the young to learn that our atmosphere is losing its oxygen; that skies are becoming open sewers; that the seas are dumping grounds in which marine life finds it difficult to survive.

—Norman Cousins

A number of Panel members mentioned health as a transnational challenge. One said, "It seems unreasonable for a few among the world's peoples to have the privilege of heart transplants while most people in the rest of the world don't see a doctor from birth to death." Also speaking in a cross-cultural context, Helvi Sipilä, a distinguished woman on the Panel, said "Unless we take more seriously the fate of women in developing countries, I don't think we can solve many of the problems in the world."

The Bicentennial Panelists apparently believed that health not only remains an important objective but that as a major goal it has appreciably increased in scope. The goal is now stated as "total mental, physical, and emotional health" for each individual. Achieving this goal was seen as a responsibility of all educational agencies, although schools have an extremely important role to play.

2 COMMAND OF FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES

Education will be increasingly concerned with* how *to learn.
–McGeorge Bundy

We should think in terms of forward to the basics rather than back to the basics. The new basics will include the attainment of decision-making skills in human relationships.
–Grace C. Baisinger

Over the years, the interpretation of "fundamental processes" has changed in many ways. While the Panel vigorously reaffirmed the importance of proficiency in the three R's and in oral communication skills, it also identified a wide variety of other skills. These additional fundamental processes sorted themselves into three categories:

1. *Skills in humanistic processes,* including human relations skills, group process skills, and those skills based on cross-cultural and multiethnic insights.

2. *Neoacademic skills,* including a knowledge of sources, the understanding and use of computer languages, and improved ability to cope with increasing specialization through a command of cross-disciplinary understandings.

3. *Anticipatory skills,* represented by the ability to (a) see relationships and make correlations; (b) sort, weigh, and then act on data; (c) evaluate choices and make decisions wisely despite the current glut of information and misinformation; and (d) understand how power functions at various levels from neighborhoods to international capitals.

An examination of this formidable list of fundamental processes, extending as it does from literacy at one end of the spectrum to a functional understanding of "power" at the other, tends to support the point made earlier that schools, as they are now, are in need of closer cooperative relationships with other socioeducational agencies.

3 WORTHY HOME MEMBERSHIP

We shouldn't look for a substitute for the family; we should strive to alter the forces that serve to destroy it.
–Willis W. Harman

When the Panelists discussed this subject, they emphasized three points. One was that the nature of the family is changing. Another was that the family is of great importance and is still needed in United States culture. A third dealt with the obligation of the schools to adapt to changes in the home and family and, in the process, to rethink the meaning of "worthy."

Most-mentioned home changes included (a) the new opportunities and roles for women that have developed since the cardinal principles first appeared in 1918, (b) the impact of television, (c) the home's loss of influence on the individual, and (d) the increase in the variety of "affinity groups" such as farm communes which have gathered people together in a relationship that often is quite unlike the traditional family unit. Some consultants spoke of the loss of self-worth experienced since the 1920's by children and youth as they found their roles as helpful, needed family members either diminished or wiped out by changes in life-styles and in technology.

A social scientist, Elise Boulding, made the point that there is nothing new about the fact that home-family changes have occurred except that now *we* are the ones involved. "We have had many kinds of social experiments with a bearing on family life in the course of human history," she said, "including the single-sex and the not so well-known heterosexual communes that were abundant in the Middle Ages."

Despite novel living arrangements that have begun to compete with the traditional nuclear family, the Bicentennial Panelists agreed that some form of family membership is very important, and they expressed confidence in the indestructible nature of family bonds, irrespective of social change.

They felt, however, that affinity groups can make an important potential contribution by fulfilling the need for love and affection, providing a sheltering environment for the disadvantaged child, and teaching the lesson of how to live with others in harmony and mutual respect. As one Panelist phrased it, affinity groups are "closed ecosystems of rewarding, mutual interdependence."

While the family received a variety of accolades, its troubles were a cause of concern. Panelists made a number of statements and recommendations bearing directly or indirectly on worthy home membership and the improvement of home-school relations. Some of them are as follows:

1. Heretofore, in a broad sense, the educational system has been a system comprised of the home, the workplace, the church, and the school. At present, only the school continues to provide the same number of hours of educational experiences. The home has reduced its contribution. To illustrate: In 1960, 43 percent of

Among the educational imperatives needed are greater flexibility in teaching and learning, education for a dynamic world, and nurturing of intellectual curiosity so that there will be a yearning to keep on learning.
–Rev. Theodore M. Hesburgh

All of the seven cardinal principles could be subsumed under two: (1) vocational efficiency and (2) self-fulfillment. "Self-fulfillment" is the ability of an individual to respond to the needs life imposes for ethical character, responsible parenthood, and the like.
–Sir Walter Perry

mothers of school-age children were in the labor force; in 1974, this figure had climbed to nearly 55 percent. Many children now return to homes in which they have little guidance, and this creates new responsibilities for other educational agencies.

2. One often-overlooked factor that bears on education is the "power" role of certain organized groups such as taxpayers' associations, whose political and economic influence can be detrimental to the welfare of such unorganized groups as children, youth, the unemployed, and old people.

3. In some countries, the status of women must be improved further if there are to be families in which it is possible to achieve worthy home membership. To a considerable extent, this generalization applies in the United States, particularly with regard to minority groups.

4. Insofar as they have the time and ingenuity to do it, educational agencies, including schools, should make a carefully planned effort to help us rediscover the sense of well-being that can be found in rich family living.

5. Because parents are so often involved in activities that take them out of the home setting, teachers should encourage them to use the time they have with children as "high quality time"–time planned to maximize the significance of these parent-child contacts.

6. As a part of schooling, children and youth might well have more service-and-action-type experiences that help them to sense what good home living involves, including the responsibilities and duties as well as the privileges and opportunities. For example, one consultant suggested that children, at an appropriate time (in their teens), might become apprentices to mothers of young babies.

If the cardinal principle of worthy home membership were to be rephrased to adapt it to 1976, probably most Panel members would agree that it might better read "worthy *family* membership." This change would recognize that in addition to the home cluster, there are many affinity groups of value in which children and youth might find family experiences.

4 VOCATION

While the NEA's Bicentennial Panelists recognized the importance of vocational skills, their concepts of contemporary vocational education were, for the most part, much broader than those earning-a-livelihood goals that the Commission voiced back in 1918. There was also a clear division of opinion in the Panelists' replies. Some respondents felt that specific vocational training or preparation should continue to be carried on in the secondary and postsecondary school years. Others either stressed a general education as the best prerequisite to vocational success or argued that

more and perhaps most vocational preparation should occur outside the school walls.

Because of the range of viewpoints expressed, it seems desirable to present these contrasting views. In fairness, the thoughtful insights of the 1918 report should also be mentioned.

In its original form, vocation as a cardinal principle emphasized equipping the student to earn a living, to serve society through work, to "maintain the right relationships toward. . .fellow workers and society," and "as far as possible" to develop oneself through a vocation. The Commission also recommended that those proficient in a given vocation should serve as instructors and that students have apprentice-type experiences either in or out of school.

The 1976 Panelists tended to agree with one another that the best vocational education is a general education. Some of the views they expressed are as follows:

1. The problem with regard to specific vocational skill training in a changing society is to know what kind of preparation vocations are going to require in 10 or 15 years.
2. A good general education should be followed by the teaching of specific skills.
3. The habit of lifelong learning is now, in a sense, a vocational skill.
4. Most vocational education can best be acquired outside of school.
5. Competence in problem solving has now become a requisite for vocational efficiency.
6. We need a "new vocational breed" of individuals who see the implications *in their vocations* for combating pollution and other ecological problems.
7. School should focus on the general requirements of all vocations and on serial or recurring preparation.
8. Vocational preparation must avoid locking people into the wrong jobs.

The Panelists did not want to downgrade the importance of vocational education, but they did stress the notion that effective citizenship, vocational skills, and general education "are interrelated and more complex because life has become more complex and therefore more demanding."

A number of miscellaneous comments about vocational education can be summarized under the label "humanistic," that is, they deal with views on how human welfare can best be served in preparation for the world of work. Here are some examples:

1. Vocational skills need to be carefully developed, and productivity must be encouraged because otherwise as wages spiral upward, the unskilled will find themselves unemployed.
2. The school's prime tasks are to cultivate reason, increase knowledge, and facilitate self-realization, without which "vocation" loses much of its meaning.
3. Vocational training is very much in the human interest in developing nations, where less and less work is available to the untrained as populations increase.
4. One of vocational education's challenges will be to help insure that competent, motivated, productive people are available

Much that has been done in secondary education in the name of developing vocational skill might better have been accomplished outside the school.
—A. Harry Passow

Some of our old concepts of success have actually become a threat to our survival in an increasingly crowded world.
—Lester R. Brown

with skills they can bring to a full employment program.

5. Independence and a feeling of self-worth depend on opportunities for exercising a vital ability. There is joy in reaching for excellence in some form. Vocational skills should help individuals achieve these personal satisfactions.

5 CITIZENSHIP

Educated persons must be more than doctors, engineers, or scientists; they must be effective citizens and human beings.
–Benjamin Bloom

In its 1918 report, the "cardinal principles" Commission recognized the vast importance of civic education. This recognition is reflected in the amount of coverage given to this goal—more than double that given any other objective except worthy home membership, which was a poor second!

Loyalty to the ideal of "civic righteousness" was emphasized along with a knowledge of social agencies and institutions and the "means and methods that will promote one [worthy] social end without defeating others." Ways of implementing changes through "habits of cordial cooperation in social undertakings" also were considered essential for good citizenship. Superior citizenship, by the way, was singled out as "the dominant aim" of instruction in geography, history, civics, and economics at the secondary school level.

Understanding and respect for the ideals of democracy as well as respect for the achievements, possibilities, and limitations of other nations were made clear in a statement that said in part: "[the] study of dissimilar contributions in the light of the ideal of human brotherhood should help to establish a genuine internationalism, free from sentimentality, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations."[13]

The foresight of the Commission statement with respect to civic education acquires fresh interest in the context of the goals or aims identified by the 1976 Panelists. While one cannot say *plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose*, there are striking similarities of thought between the 1918 report and the present Panel's thinking.

For one thing, the NEA Bicentennial Panelists emphasized the importance of a global viewpoint. Various statements supported "loyalty to the planet as well as to the nation," the "need for a world view," "world citizenship," and the need for "membership in much larger societies" or for recognizing that "citizenship is more than narrow chauvinism."

Some participants pointed out that civic education should make clear the need to narrow the gap between the industrially developed and the less developed nations, that a liberal education should give as much heed to national and international problems as to foreign language, and that the difficulties and challenges which exist in both laissez faire and planned societies should be presented.

Another rather frequent suggestion was that the young be made aware that if the United States wishes to improve its moral posture and leadership in the world, it can best do so by first cleaning up the domestic troubles in Washington and in the 50 states. A related point was that we must work to build respect and support for leadership of integrity.

Other strong statements, perhaps mirroring contemporary political and social malaise, centered around power. An overseas participant stressed the need for groups which have power to be better informed as they exercise that power. Some Panelists, a number of them from ethnic minorities, contended that being well-informed isn't enough. They said that civic education should encourage active, constructive participation in politics and that it should help people understand how to use power positively. A few expressed concern over the possibility that the beliefs and values of teachers and personnel employed in agencies other than schools, if publicly expressed, might increase pressure for censorship or other forms of retaliation and restraint.

Because of the nuclear threat and the increasing interdependence of nations, several Panelists felt that representatives of all national governments must more explicitly recognize the danger in aggression and in the use of force. Panelists also spoke of the importance of negotiation—of compromise, cooperation, cooperative decision making, and the resolution of conflicts. If this need is extrapolated downward to the national, state, and local levels within U.S. borders, the development of these same skills of interaction among the young presumably should become a new, vigorous dimension in civic education for the future. Certain Panelists even named process skills, which they defined as the ability to work well with other humans, as survival skills to be learned through civic education.

One final point bearing on citizenship experiences can be inferred from the preceding paragraphs. The Panelists evidently have confidence in what the schools in particular—among all educational resources—can accomplish to strengthen democracy as well as to brighten our human prospects for the third millennium. An internationally respected Panel member, Ralph Tyler, put it this way:

> The place that has the greatest promise of being an ideal democratic society—as I look over institutions in our nation—is the school. Even though some schools are troubled by conflicts, mostly begun and pushed by the parents, by and large they are a microcosm of democracy where people care, or are learning to care, about others. In most teachers and students alike, there is a degree of fairness and of justice. Lots of kids participate in the planning and in the outcomes of what they do.
>
> Our efforts to make our society more democratic beyond the schools' walls and playgrounds are going to be aided tremendously by maintaining as we have in this country—and better than in any other country—a school environment in which teachers try to be democratic in their relations with students and with one another.
>
> There are very few teachers who are cruel or who look down upon persons who come from a lower economic group of a different ethnic group. I believe that this attitude of acceptance is essential to maintain our pluralistic society. We must preserve this kind of school atmosphere and the values of what John Dewey called "a society in miniature."

The seven cardinal principles provide a useful taxonomy, but some of the original interpretations now seem naive in retrospect.
—Robert J. Havighurst

6 WORTHY USE OF LEISURE

I would prefer to change the "worthy use of leisure time" to the "creative use of leisure time."
–Sally Swing Shelley

I see missing from the cardinal principles references to the aesthetic experience–to art and beauty–and that is a serious omission unless you can weave them into the principles.
–Sterling McMurrin

The comments that the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education made on the worthy use of leisure reflect in part the nature of society some 60 or 70 years ago. Reading between the lines of that document, one senses that work days were long and that arduous physical labor in America had yet to be tempered by a widespread use of machines.

The work ethic, perhaps a bit incongruously, sometimes infiltrated the 1918 approach to leisure so that people were made to feel that even free time should be used in "worthy" ways. To illustrate, the school was advised to organize recreational activities so "that they will contribute simultaneously to other ends of education" which improve the mind or increase the individuals' knowledge.

In examining this principle, the Bicentennial Panelists noted that the line dividing work and leisure has blurred since 1918, both because there is more time for relaxation available to more people today and because an energy-intensive economy leaves them less physically fatigued than does a labor-intensive one. The breakdown of the work-leisure dichotomy probably will be furthered as more men and women engage in work-type activities that have now begun to assume more of a recreational nature. Gardening, redecorating a room, crocheting, gourmet cooking, building a carport–all of these involve work, but they are also leisure-time activities, since they are undertaken outside of on-the-job employment time.

Sixty years ago, the Commission wrote that leisure was intended to recreate body, mind, and spirit and enrich the personality through experiences involving music, art, literature, drama, and social activity. Today, too, leisure time is well used for recreative purposes and as a means to self-fulfillment, but the channels that education should seek to open, according to the Bicentennial Panelists, are much broader, and the time for enjoying leisure is potentially greater.

As education seeks to enhance the ability to enjoy free time, it also needs to show awareness of a factor that is sometimes overlooked: the limited leisure of millions of people who are obliged to work on a second job or overtime because of the gap between their income and their aspirations or needs. Here schools and other educative agencies continue to be challenged to develop the skills and to encourage the productivity that permit the attainment of economic levels at which leisure time is available.

A second, more subtle factor related to leisure time is that increasing complexity in Americans' lives erodes time that might otherwise be used for recreative, self-fulfilling activity. The wives and mothers or husbands and fathers of 1976 have many gadgets and devices that their parents or grandparents lacked, but they

also have many tasks to perform that were mostly unknown to their grandparents. While this factor varies both with sex roles and with economic conditions, it provides a new task for education: helping young and old alike to prevent today's complexities from totally eroding their leisure time.

7 ETHICAL CHARACTER

"In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the [seven] objectives," the authors of the cardinal principles declared. The 1976 Panelists believed that the task of developing ethical character is, if anything, more important at present than it ever was in the past. While they made few specific suggestions as to what education might do to strengthen or build ethical character, they recognized and defined the seventh cardinal principle as an educational imperative.

The following paragraphs attempt to capture the spirit of the statements regarding character which Panelists made.

When contemplating the development of ethical character as an educational imperative, it is well to note, as some consultants did, that young and old alike need ethical models. But to have ethical leadership, we must also have a society that honors and supports or elects "model" leaders. The process of creating or recreating an ethical society, therefore, becomes evolutionary and interactive.

The Panelists contended that we need a renewal of respect—merited respect—for the institutions that give democracy, the human conscience, and the individual life their meanings. We also need to develop, through consensus, basic guideposts that will give strength and meaning to social and educational policies. But there is a limit to what leadership in our government and other institutions can accomplish—a point at which democratic *processes* must vitalize policymaking and its implementation. Here the individual's possession of ethical standards becomes crucial.

In devising or developing experiences that create what we label "ethical character," it is the family (or affinity group) and the school that are likely to have the greatest influence. Above all others, these two among the various educational agencies strengthen or diminish the ability to resist manipulation. They either nurture or undercut the decisiveness needed to respond without confusion to basic choices. They either develop the talent for self-direction or they teach acceptance of the dictates of tyrannical machines, of authorities, or of the expert with the answers.

A number of the Panelists said that as parents and teachers guide young people toward the acquisition of ethical character, they need to reassess the importance of a reasoned discipline and of rules that are firm and fair rather than harsh or quixotic. They

Ethical character involves a regard for other people, and education should develop a sense of responsibility for others.
—Patsy Takemoto Mink

We need to help children develop nobility. By nobility I mean doing the right thing for the right reason. I think this can be taught just as we teach arithmetic or reading or biology.
—Jonas Salk, M.D.

The seven cardinal principles are fine—completely valid—but only if we interpret them in the context of the future rather than in their past setting.
—David Rockefeller

I hope that by 2000 A.D. education is going to be a multiethnic process from which each of us profits from the best of the other cultures.
—Lloyd Elm

added that in the process parents and teachers must keep their awareness that ethical character grows from *within* and *cannot* be imposed.

Furthermore, in any culture, development of ethical character also calls for an awareness of what is considered right and wrong in that culture and for a rejection of a relativism that denies, if only by implication, that such things as the common good and the general welfare exist.

After many, many hours spent in an attempt to capture the Panelists' thinking as well as that of a number of bright young people—some from what once were distant places—it seems a pleasant concluding exercise to turn back to the *NEA Bicentennial Ideabook* in which the cardinal principles project was described.

Did the Panelists' statements verify that the *Ideabook's* Declaration of Interdependence made sense? Did their testimony support the notion that after 200 years the American people really are entering a new era? Are we ready to think in terms of education for a global community? Are the five "self-evident truths" that the Bicentennial Committee proclaimed both true and self-evident?

At this juncture, the problems of the present and the prospects for the future that have been inventoried make clear that it is time well spent if we examine these self-evident truths:

1. *Two hundred years after declaring our independence, the American people are entering a new era.*[14] As far as the International Bicentennial Panel was concerned, this statement is categorically true. We are well on the road to an era that will be both threatening and promising, that will be full of developments which we must try to anticipate and replete with surprises no matter how clever our guesses about tomorrow's world may be.

2. *Today we must acknowledge the interdependence of all peoples.* Again, some of the world's more provocative, thoughtful people agree with the views expressed in the *Ideabook*. The data that support this second truth are accumulating with every passing day.

3. *Education can be a vehicle through which peace and the principles of the American Revolution—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—may become the guidelines for human relationships on our planet.* Here the Panelists suggest a cautious "maybe." It is the *quality* of education—its caliber, its integrity—that is significant. If education is to be a vehicle to promote peace and liberty, educated people must honor the seventh cardinal principle, ethical character.

4. *Educators around the world are in a unique position to help bring about a harmoniously interdependent global community based on the principles of peace and justice.* This declaration may be true in some respects, but it is not as yet self-evident. Educators are in a unique position to *help*, but one also can infer from the Panelists' comments that professionals in education sometimes have opportunities and responsibilities that exceed their resources and their authority and that teaching and learning thus lose much of their potential.

Also, the consultants repeatedly made it clear that educational agencies other than schools need to take a greater part in sharing the burden of informing masses of people, many of whom are beyond the schools' immediate reach.

5. *Toward this end, the National Education Association is pursuing a series of programs to prepare for major reform in education.* This particular resolve of the Bicentennial Committee is of a different order than the first four statements. The present report, however, by the very fact of its existence, demonstrates the Association's commitment to major reforms. By the way it was structured, the Report also confirms the Association's dedication to widespread participation and group processes in exploring and carrying out reforms.

The significance that the reexamined seven cardinal principles may have in encouraging change in the real world probably will depend in considerable measure upon follow-up action growing out of meetings of teachers and other interested groups. The purpose of such meetings would be to develop human needs curriculums based on the reassessment of the seven original objectives of education—focusing on the world as a community, on the quest for peace, on neglected human rights, and on the creation of a more humane society.

The NEA must be more than a union—more than salary and working conditions. The Association must provide teachers with resources for dealing with students.

—Consuelo Nieto

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[1]See page 72 for the names of members of the NEA Bicentennial Committee, the Preplanning Committee, and the Panel.

[2]The students responded to the following questions:

What do you think the world will be like 20 years from now?

What would you *like* to be doing 20 years from now, and what do you think you *will* be doing in 1995?

What do you think education could do to help you reach your personal life goals?

Are these goals (the seven cardinal principles) still good ones after nearly 60 years?

[3]*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* Washington, DC: Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. Bulletin #35, 1918, p. 7.

[4]*Ibid.*, p. 9.

[5]National Congress of Parents and Teachers. *Educating for Seven Point Lives.* Washington, DC: the Congress, 1932.

[6]*Ibid.*, pp. 4-5. The original 1918 report also stated that the seven cardinal principles were applicable to "education as a whole."

[7]In 1966, the Research Division of the NEA asked "a scientifically selected cross section of the nation's public school teachers" if the principles were outmoded. (*Cf.* NEA Research Division, "A New Look at the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education," *NEA Journal,* January 1967, pp. 53-54.) More than 85 percent of the respondents felt that they were a satisfactory list of major objectives. Now, a decade later, the Bicentennial Panel gives them a new lease on life as objectives for United States education.

[8]*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 12.

[9]*Ibid.*, p. 11.

[10]*Ibid.*, p. 14.

[11]*Ibid.*

[12]Ralph W. Tyler, Lawrence A. Cremin, and Sterling McMurrin are quoted or paraphrased in these points.

[13]*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education,* p. 15.

[14]*NEA Bicentennial Ideabook.* Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1975, p. 8.

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Pennsylvania teacher; former NEA President

In addition to input from the above panel members, 95 interviews were conducted with high school juniors and seniors and with 25 presidents of student councils. Input was also received from 17 persons from overseas who were interviewed at the United Nations.

*Institutional affiliations are given as they were during the period when the Committee or the Panel began its work.

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Teachers and Parents Together

in an innovative early education program

By MARIAN K. BEEBE
Materials Developer, Parent-Child Early Education Program, Ferguson-Florissant School District, Ferguson, Missouri.

Recently, when I visited one of our Saturday School Centers, located in a kindergarten room in the St. Louis suburbs, it was bustling with activity. Some 20 children, clustered in fives around instructors, were intently engaged in a variety of tasks.

In one corner, five young fishermen were casting magnetic-tipped fishing lines into an imaginary pond to catch, then count, construction-paper fish. In another, a teacher was dicing vegetables into a soup kettle to brew a language lesson good enough to eat. To improve hand and eye coordination, a third group was taking turns tossing bean bags into the wide open mouth of a cardboard clown.

My attention returned to one young fisherman who was fishing without a pole. He ran his hand along the surface of the floor until he established contact with a fish. Then, thrusting it high for all to see, he broke out in what was undoubtedly the world's biggest smile. A little girl squealed excitedly, "Matt's caught another fish! Matt's caught another fish!"

This was indeed a spine-tingling experience. Matt, the class's only blind student, was being warmly accepted in the world of the sighted.

The presence of a handicapped child mainstreamed with the normal was only one of the rather unusual things about the class. Some others were the fact that school was in session on a Saturday, that the students were all four years old, and that the small-group instructors—with one exception—were all parents.

Matt and his classmates, along with 800 of their contemporaries, are enrolled in an innovative early education program called Saturday School. But the name is misleading. Saturday School is much more than school on Saturday.

Formally titled Parent-Child Early Education Program, it is a fresh approach to an age-old prob-

lem: how to increase a child's chances for success in school—and in society.

Reviewing quantities of research on the way children learn and develop during the early years convinced the program planners in the Ferguson-Florissant School District that it is essential to involve the parents. Proceeding on this premise, they conceived a program that teaches the parent as well as the child.

The program was initially funded under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Now it is supported locally with contributing funds from the State of Missouri Department of Special Education.

"The involvement of parents influences the program's structure and success more than any other single factor," reports Warren M. Brown, superintendent of the Ferguson-Florissant School District. "The child's education becomes a shared

During the home visit, the atmosphere is relaxed and instruction is personalized.

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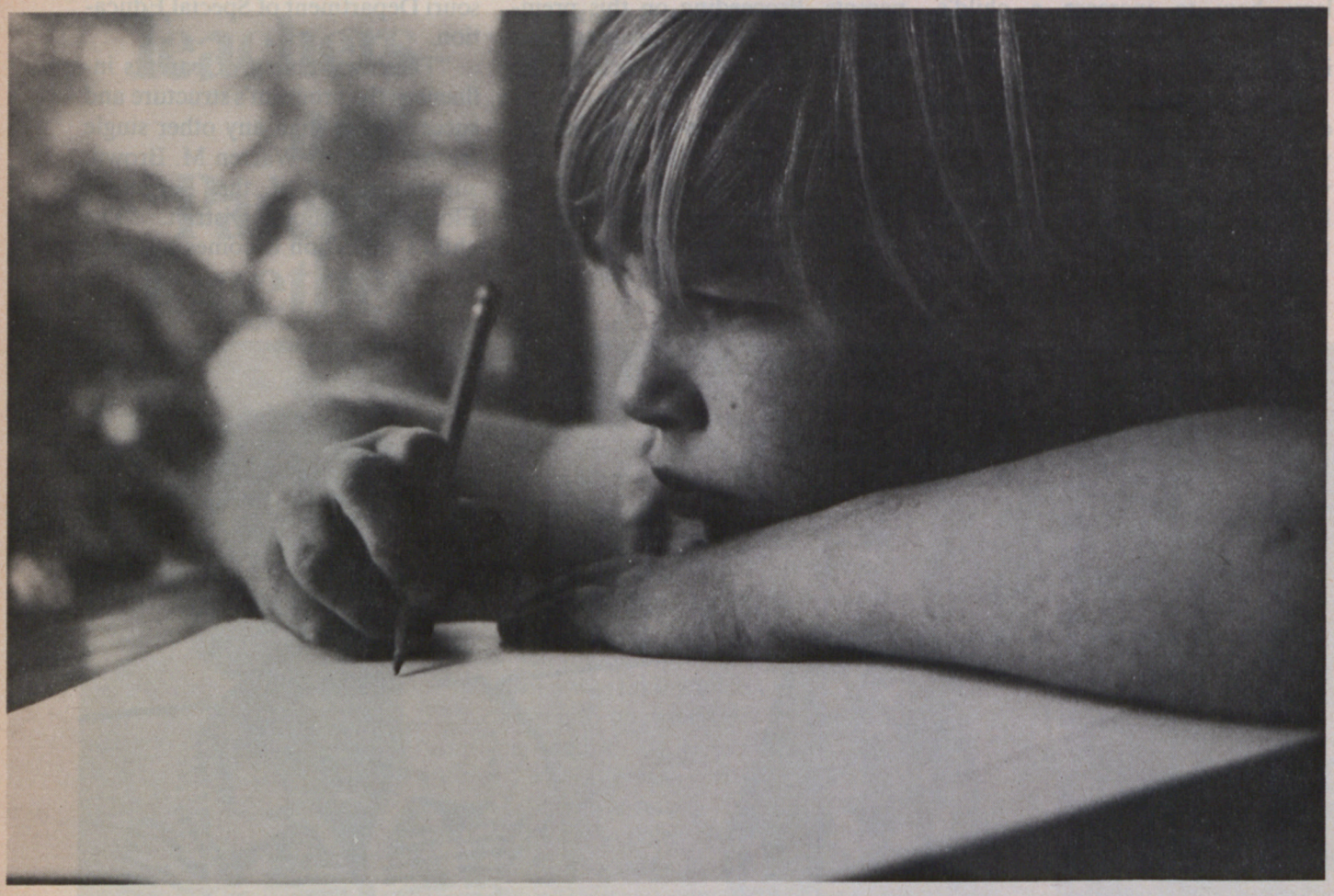

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Educational Games and Simulations focuses on how educational games and simulations exist as possibilities to present a student-centered environment in a structured way.

Educational Media focuses upon the accelerated changes in teacher roles resulting from the use of media in instruction.

Evaluation and Reporting of Student Achievement considers the purposes of evaluation and reporting; their development; the best way to report student achievement; the types of evaluation that can improve instruction.

Group Processes in Elementary and Secondary Schools explains the importance of the structure and functions of classroom groups, the relationship of the teacher to groups, and ways to utilize group processes for effective learning.

Homework examines the study habits, skills, and facilities as they apply to work done outside the classroom. Special attention is given to homework and individualized instruction, and the relation to scholastic success.

Learning Process answers these questions: How do we learn? When are children ready to learn? What is the right answer? What do children see? When is practice necessary? Filmstrip also available.

Listening provides a variety of exercises at all levels to heighten listening power in the three related stages: hearing sounds, distinguishing understandable words, and extracting meaning. Filmstrip also available.

Motivation in Teaching and Learning examines self-concept as related to motivation and learning, teacher and student variables relating to motivation and learning, and teaching techniques to enhance motivation and learning. Filmstrip also available.

Reading: Instructional Approaches is a survey of recent research in the field of reading instruction. Reviews the contribution of linguistics and psychology to contemporary reading instruction and outlines some of the newer approaches to effective reading instruction.

Sensory Factors in the School Learning Environment discusses the inherent factors in present classroom design and identifies those factors necessary for the optimum learning environment.

Teaching the Disadvantaged answers the questions: What are the characteristics of the disadvantaged? What are their learning handicaps? What teaching methods reach them? What are the problems of each age group? Filmstrip also available.

Team Teaching reviews the philosophy, objectives, accomplishments and structure of teaching in a team concept. Special attention is given to grouping students, professional relationships, and instructional preparation.

Visual Literacy defines terms, surveys the history of visual communication, and examines the process of "reading" pictures, symbols, and other graphic representations. Discusses the relation of visual literacy to visual creativity.

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responsibility between home and school, parent and teacher."

When the program was launched five years ago, we anticipated a reluctance on the part of parents to join us. Parents were, after all, traditionally accustomed to leaving their children at the school door. We were requesting a portion of their time at home and on Saturdays, we were inviting ourselves into their homes, and we were having them work side by side with professionals.

Our skepticism was ill-founded. An average of 98 percent of the parents help at school at least once during the school year, and 78 percent contribute their fair share—five times a year. Program Director Marion Wilson recalls: "Frankly, we were amazed at the response. The fact that we enroll more than 75 percent of the four-year-olds living in the district is an indication in itself that parents are willing to become involved in their child's education."

Parents are thoroughly involved in every phase of the program's four parts. They take turns working at the half-day school sessions on Saturdays, participate in the teacher's once-a-week visits into the home, provide additional at-home learning experiences for their child during the week, and participate in the testing of their child at the start of the year.

The tuition-free program costs the district a modest $205 per child. It employs a part-time staff of certified teachers and teaching specialists, along with consultants in learning disabilities and child psychology.

Preparing parents begins two weeks before school starts with an evening orientation meeting for both mothers and fathers. Teachers explain the program and outline in detail the part parents play, our expectations of parents, and the kind of help we supply.

Through-the-year training of parents is a continuing responsibility of every teacher and a built-in part of every contact with parents.

At the first-of-the-year screening, the mother looks on while the teacher tests her child. Each mother also fills out a checklist indicating her child's ability to perform a variety of cognitive and social skills, with a space for writing in any special needs or concerns.

Later, the teacher meets with the parent to report the test findings as a means of helping her understand her child's strengths and weaknesses and the areas, if any, that may require concentrated effort.

The teacher and parents then talk about what they can do together to help the child during the year. The partnership has begun. It is firmly cemented as they continue to work together at school and during home visits. To see how this works, let's follow Susan Barkley and her family through a week of their experiences related to Saturday School.

Susie comes to a half-day session at school every Saturday morning. About once every six weeks Susie's mother or father comes too, to teach a learning activity to a small group of students. Mrs. Barkley, like most parents, felt a little nervous the first time she came to teach. "But I soon got over it," she says. "It was all set up for me, so I could hardly go wrong."

(Teachers meet with each of the participating parents before the children arrive to demonstrate ways to gear the activity to the ability of each child. These lessons carry over into the work parents do at home with their own children.)

Susie joins two neighboring children for a one-hour teaching visit each week, which takes place on a rotating basis in one of the three homes. Mrs. Barkley and the other mothers, or the sitter if the mother works, join the children for the learning activities during the session. (Children with a special problem or handicap also see a teaching specialist once or twice a week.)

During the home visit, the atmosphere is relaxed and instruction is personalized. The setting is informal—on the floor, around the kitchen table, or outside under a shade tree.

To bridge the gap between school on Saturdays and the home visits, Susan's mother, with some help from dad and older brother Tad, introduces skill-developing games into Susie's everyday play. Their source for ideas? A "games" guide, which the teacher gives to Mrs. Barkley at each home-teaching visit. The teacher checks the activities that would particularly benefit Susan.

The program gives parents an opportunity to pick up the techniques a trained teacher uses in teaching and working with young children, and before too many weeks, they begin to imitate the teacher's model. As one experienced mother of 10 said, "Just watching the teachers work with the children is an education in itself."

From observing their child at work and play with other four-year-olds, parents grow aware of what a typical child that age can do. As a result, what they expect of their own child becomes more realistic. Depending on the child, they will begin to raise their expectations or lower them.

Parents will also begin to assess their child's development in a broad range of readiness skills. This is an excellent motivator for at-home teaching in areas where their child may need it.

Teachers, in turn, benefit from seeing the children in their homes. "It really helps me understand the children, and their parents, too, in a way that seeing them only in a classroom setting would not provide," says one veteran teacher. "When I see a child living in a house without a single magazine or newspaper or a child who is overindulged by a too accommodating

mother or who is being severely scolded by a too strict or demanding parent, I get an insight into this child that I simply could not get any other way. This makes a lot of difference in the way I deal with the child—and the parent."

In case we have implied that fathers are seldom involved in the program, let us say that this is not necessarily so. The majority of the helpers are mothers, but the teachers all admit to feeling a little partial toward the fathers who help at Saturday School.

Most fathers arrive for their first teaching duty looking as though they'd much rather be home cutting the grass. They are, after all, unaccustomed to working with little children—and that may even include their own! But one session is usually enough to convert them into ardent supporters and helpers.

Although fathers are involved at home considerably less than mothers, some pursue their school role with gusto. One inventive father, whose son has a serious lag in fine motor skills, duplicates every game the teacher brings into the home with embellishments of his own that are good enough to patent, like adding color-coding to a screw-into-the-board set.

Parents tell teachers that they had no idea how capable young children are. They just thought children sort of grew and in due course automatically learned what they needed to know. Involvement in the program has given parents a new awareness: Learning for children can take place anywhere, anytime.

A father of 12 whose youngest child is in Saturday School admits that when he was working around the house he "used to shoo the children away in the interest of their safety and his sanity." But now he makes a point of having his four-year-old son work alongside him on something he can do, adding, "We've really become better friends."

An average of 98 percent of the parents help at school at least once during the school year, and 78 percent contribute their fair share—five times a year.

Surprisingly perhaps, mothers, who are with their children around the clock, report the same thing. A year of working with their children in Saturday School has resulted in a greater bond and a closer relationship.

The guiding hand in this program is the teacher, who must be competent to perform many roles: instructor, tester, evaluator, curriculum planner, teaching-team member, counselor, and partner and friend to parents. Consequently, the teacher-training program is intensive, thorough, and yearlong.

Specialists and consultants conduct a two-week training course for teachers before school starts and lead weekly two-hour sessions during the year. The focus is on four-year-olds with emphasis on child development practices, working with parents, test administration, behavior-modification techniques, and appropriate learning activities that relate to a list of specific skills and objectives.

Teachers continually share information and insight with parents. "Whatever our psychologist says about child growth and development this week," reports one teacher, "I'll be using in my home visit next week. For example, I may explain that four-year-olds may be clumsy because they are at such a fast-growing age. They constantly have to make new adjustments for a longer leg or arm when they are reaching or walking."

Our first-year Saturday School students are now starting fourth grade. On their third grade achievement tests, they scored significantly higher on the total test battery and in all sub-areas except math than their control groups—children who had no preschool experience or who had other preschool experience.

This same pattern has appeared every year since they entered kindergarten except that last year was the first time they were not significantly ahead in math. Their counterparts who entered the Saturday School during its second year have similarly shown themselves to be significantly higher achievers than their control group classmates on the same battery of achievement tests.

In the third and final year of federal funding for Saturday School, a program validator, whose job was to determine whether our program was living up to its list of 44 objectives, commented to the taxi driver who was transporting him to our office, "I'm here in St. Louis to visit the Saturday School program in the Ferguson-Florissant School District. Have you ever heard of it?"

The driver responded, "Heard about it? I've even taught in it! And I can't say enough good things about it!" He raved on, nonstop, for some 28 minutes and 36 blocks. When the destination was reached, he closed with this clincher, "I gotta say one more thing. Because of this Saturday School, my little girl is not going to go through life being shy like her brother. Just being in this program has already made a difference—and it will every day of her life."

That, after all, is what this partnership is all about. □

Where Have
All the
Innovations
Gone?

By **FRED M. HECHINGER**
Assistant Editorial Page Editor, The New York Times.

Trying to bring about changes in education has been compared to moving a cemetery. Other observers describe the process of school reform as great expectation followed by greater disillusionment. And those who have been following American educational history see in the latest innovation merely another confirmation that nothing is ever new under the sun.

At the moment, when the most revolutionary happening seems to be the rediscovery of the three R's, it may be enlightening to take a nostalgic look back to the Golden Age of Progress—the 1950's and 1960's. Brave new worlds then seemed like prosperity in 1929—just around the corner. Foundations were pouring liberal amounts of seed money into experimentation.

Now, a quarter of a century later, what has happened to these seeds? Why have so many of them failed to grow? Following is a partial list of yesterday's innovations and how time dealt with them.

Closed-Circuit TV. When the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education, in the 1950's, provided many of the dollars and much of the know-how to wire the entire school district of Washington County, Maryland, for closed-circuit television, the experiment was widely regarded as the beginning of a new age of teaching. Master teachers became their district's TV personalities. Their skills, instead of being confined to the pupils in their own classrooms, would reach the entire system, and would also be on view for a steady stream of visiting educational firemen.

Norwalk, Connecticut, another of a number of TV pioneers, at one time reached 350 classrooms from a central TV studio. Half a dozen other systems went heavily into the electronic medium. In the Middle West, a four-engine aircraft covered a six-state area with TV lessons (Midwest Program on Airborne TV Instruction) like a giant intellectual crop duster. For some years the program reached up to 15,000 schools. But when Ford money ran out, the plane was permanently grounded in 1967.

Delegations of educators visited the experimental sites and marveled at witnessing what they felt was the future. Why did closed-circuit television fail to make a lasting impact as a lecturing device other than in certain special areas such as the operating theaters of medical schools?

Perhaps teachers, like many American intellectuals in general, looked down on TV as a lowbrow medium that corrupts taste and diminishes the mind. In addition, many teachers may have been afraid of the tube, knowing that it magnifies both good and bad teaching and exposes the latter to a wider view instead of keeping it safely confined within the classroom. Except at an exorbitant price moreover, the shortage of superior talent—in TV teaching as well as in TV production—was difficult to overcome.

There were, moreover, some serious built-in weaknesses in the TV as lecturer concept, which the original experimenters had ignored. Scheduling tended to be too inflexible—forcing the teacher to use a lesson at a particular time when it was difficult to fit into the natural progress of learning. In the extreme case of the airborne TV experiment, critics suggested its inadequacy when they referred to it as "educational crop dusting." Moreover, the approach clearly had threatening overtones of a superimposed, or even a national curriculum, that go against the American grain.

Fortunately, advances in technology have since made it possible to overcome some of those early limitations. The availability of videotapes, easily stored in central libraries, has made the medium a flexible aid to any teacher's lesson plan. In the Washington County, Maryland, schools, for example, TV teachers are now presented on tape rather than live And in Norwalk, Connecticut, all the schools now have access to camera and recording equipment to use in their own buildings; the central studio has been closed down.

In addition, today more than 70 districts have acquired microwave Instructional Television Fixed Service that allows a central studio to transmit telecasts on as many as four channels at the same time.

Teaching machines. Over it all, as over many other new proposals, hovered the teachers' fear of being "replaced" by machines.

The concept of the machine that teaches by alerting students instantly to their mistakes had been developed during World War II in the form of simulated aircraft engines that told fledgling mechanics when they were endangering the plane's safety. After the war, behavioral psychologists created machines that performed similar self-correcting services in the teaching of a wide variety of subjects, from reading and mathematics to logic and history.

Visions of huge profits lured new and old industries into vast teaching-machine promotion and production. A great variety of machines descended on the schools. Initially they were fascinating to pupils, and early reports were extravagantly optimistic.

A major problem was that pedagogically satisfying teaching materials (software) to be fed into machines (hardware) were very difficult to design, a limitation compounded by the fact that competing hardware producers tried to make their machines exclusively applicable to their own software. Although their boosters claimed that machines would individualize instruction by allowing students to

← *Sesame Street lives. It might never have happened without the 1950's experiments in television.*

work singly and at their own pace, opponents denounced the process as a thinly disguised form of conditioning or regimentation rather than individual learning.

Today, little is left of machine-teaching, except in some highly technical training—where the idea started in the first place. Most recently, British researchers at the University of Lancaster have questioned that approach itself. Their findings suggest that a more structured classroom may lead to greater achievement, not only in basic skills but even in creative areas.

Team teaching. In an effort to use the diverse talents of teachers more effectively, reformers starting in about 1954 proposed their deployment in teams for each classroom—a master teacher, one or more regular teachers, and an apprentice teacher. Part of the goal was to make class size more flexible, ranging from large-group lectures (or TV lessons) to sessions with only a few pupils. At the same time, the technique would bring together teachers with a variety of skills, thus eliminating the hazards of having mathematics taught by English teachers who were mathematically illiterate, and vice versa.

Although some early pioneering teams gained widespread acclaim, the arrangement never got off the ground on a massive scale. Many teachers resented working under a "master," particularly when team leaders were chosen with too little concern for their ability, leadership qualities, and tact. Perhaps, as with TV, the concept clashed head-on with the protective tradition of the classroom as the teacher's castle.

The open classroom. In one of their recurrent revolts, critics of standardized, overadministrated education rediscovered the benefits of less structure. It is difficult to tell in retrospect whether the reformers neglected to credit John Dewey, the original pioneer in unstructured teaching, because they did not remember him or because they did remember the conservative wrath Dewey generated. Whatever the reason, the advocates of the open classroom pointed to the British infant schools as the guiding example.

It would be misleading to call the open classroom a failure; but it does appear clear that, while it still flourishes in many places, the concept has not conquered the majority of American classrooms. Apart from education's innate conservatism, reinforced by the resurgence of political conservatism in the 1970's, advocates of the open classroom found it difficult to overcome the dearth of teachers sufficiently committed to the idea and adequately prepared to implement it.

Perhaps the most serious misunderstanding arose from the fact that while the open classroom appears on the surface to be unstructured and informal, with children frequently working in small groups or independently, success depends on a very carefully planned subliminal structure for each individual child.

The British example turned out to be somewhat treacherous, in part because British schools are smaller and cozier and British children perhaps come to school with better preparation for school activities which require a certain amount of deference to adult instruction and rules. Moreover, the American disciples omitted to point out that even in Britain only a minority of schools ever subscribed to the open approach.

Vouchers. Somewhat incongruously, radical reformers late in the 1960's borrowed an idea from free enterprise capitalism when they proposed that, instead of being assigned to schools, all parents should be given vouchers entitling them to pick the schools of their choice.

Christopher Jencks, the Harvard professor who was one of the early advocates of the voucher system, argued that since such choice has always been available to the rich, who pick their children's private schools, the privilege should be extended to all tax-paying citizens. The schools they select would be able to cash in the vouchers for the amount the community normally spends per public school student.

The key argument in support of vouchers was that such competition among schools would help to break the administrative stranglehold on public education that tends to standardize schools and to discourage the introduction of new ideas. Support came initially from the federal government via the Office of Economic Opportunity, which in 1971 funded a voucher test in two communities—Gary, Indiana, and Alum Rock, a school district in San Jose, California.

Opponents were as emphatic as supporters. Objections included the following: Vouchers would encourage the creation of segregated schools; lead to public financing of church-related schools, thus possibly violating the Constitution; make the public schools the dumping ground for children not wanted by more selective private or parochial schools; and expose unsophisticated parents to exploitation by fly-by-night establishments out to corner voucher dollars.

More than a decade later, much of the steam seems to have gone out of the voucher movement. In a number of communities that considered testing the idea, including Gary, organized teachers scuttled it. In Rochester, New York, neither teachers nor parents responded with enough enthusiasm, and some black parents said they suspected the plan to be "just another trick" to help the more affluent white folk. Recently, the East Hartford, Connecticut, school board turned down the possibility of participating in a voucher experiment.

Performance contracting. In another flurry of frustration over the

public schools' inability to cope with learning problems, particularly in inner-city schools, the search for new solutions in the 1960's turned to private enterprise as a substitute for the traditional ways of organizing the schools.

Under the banner of performance contracting, a number of organizations, such as producers of textbooks and other teaching materials (including the old teaching-machine and programmed-learning manufacturers), offered to take over responsibility for teaching such limited areas as reading and mathematics through the use of their materials under the direct supervision of their representatives.

The ensuing contracts, aimed at combining effective teaching with profits for the contractor, were based on payment of agreed-upon fees prorated on the basis of pupils' accomplishments, with dollar penalties for below-norm performance.

By this time, after much initial publicity, performance contracting appears to have faded away. A recent study by the Educational Testing Service, underwritten by the United States Office of Education, concluded that the concept "overall, did not fulfill its goal of raising students' achievements as measured by test scores."

While each of the above-listed reform proposals ran into its own special set of obstacles, a common denominator for the varying degrees of failure or lackluster success has been perceptively and honestly summarized by the Ford Foundation's report *A Foundation Goes to School.*

Apart from such hurdles as lukewarm response by school staffs and a too rapid turnover of project leaders, the proposals fell victim to a far more fundamental flaw: There had been insufficient recognition that the real crisis was building up, not in the favored suburbs where most of the reforms were being tested, but in the inner cities with their masses of disadvantaged children. Neither the foundations that initiated the projects nor the nation's school administrators nor the universities that trained the teachers and occasionally participated in the pilot projects had grasped the seriousness of the trouble ahead.

James B. Conant, the former Harvard president, who wrote *Slums and Suburbs* in 1961, was virtually alone in warning about the "social dynamite" that had been building up in the urban ghettos, but even his recognition came too late to give relevance to the reform movement.

Reforms that survived. It would be misleading to exclude from this 1950's-1960's reprise a number of other school reforms that did, in fact, survive the test of time. Following is a sampling of such success stories:

Somewhat ironically, the American rush to school improvement was set off by the shock of the Soviet's first space triumph—the launching of Sputnik in 1957. Although critics of a declining academic rigor in the American schools had long been calling for change, it was not until Dr. Conant, with support from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, published *The American High School Today* in 1959 that schools reintroduced minimum scholastic requirements in such subjects as science, mathematics, foreign languages, and history.

As part of the same trend, several leading university scholars, such as Jerrold Zacharias, a physicist, and Bentley Glass, a biologist, stepped down from the ivory tower and devised improved programs for the teaching of high school students. A physics program by Dr. Zacharias, which aimed at letting students discover the laws of physics through a series of simple, basic experiments, became the prototype for other reforms. The advent of the New Math, led by outstanding university mathematicians, contributed similarly to revived interest in that fundamental subject.

As the civil rights movement swept across the nation and Lyndon B. Johnson pushed supportive legislation through Congress in 1965, funds were committed to programs aimed at bridging the gap between mainstream and disadvantaged. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act supported specific strategies to improve the education of children from poverty areas. Project Head Start mobilized ideas and tactics that had been advocated and tested by a growing army of preschool education experts.

Although a changed political climate and the impact of the recession have raised questions about compensatory education, the weight of professional opinion still suggests at least limited success and stresses that even those limitations should be attributed to inadequate funding, ineffective implementation, and insufficient time for long-term gains rather than to the concept itself.

One of the early pilot projects launched in 1953 by the Fund for the Advancement of Education was the use of teacher aides—lay assistants from the neighborhood who, at relatively low cost, could lighten the teacher's burden and simultaneously create a link between school and community.

Initial reaction was negative, as it also was to a parallel movement for the use of school volunteers. Once again, schools suspected the motives and the capacity of laymen.

Today, however, paraprofessionals are an integral part of many schools, particularly in poverty areas where the job often permits mothers to leave the welfare rolls and to start on a course that may lead to an eventual teaching diploma.

A panoramic backward glance to assess the fate of two decades of innovation may create a sense of futil-

(Continued on page 125)

By ALAN LONG
Psychologist in Private Practice, Homewood, Illinois; Former School Psychologist.

Parent-teacher conferences can, but need not be, one of the most stressful parts of your job as a teacher. Careful preparation can ease the pressure many of you feel. To begin with, you should know what each child has done in previous years. Usually the most effective way to do this is to study or review a child's cumulative record before conferring with his or her parents. Make special notes of previous teachers' comments, the child's grades, and test scores as well as any other special problems, such as vision, illnesses, and social or psychological factors.

Plan in advance what material you want to cover with the parents, and write down reminders so that you won't omit things you want to discuss. It is very easy to get sidetracked by parents and forget to bring up important points or to ask questions that you had planned. It is always good to have at hand samples of the child's best, worst, and typical work performance.

If it seems essential to discuss with a parent a special problem that goes beyond the teacher-learner-classroom situation, you may wish to consult prior to the conference with a specialist, such as a nurse, social worker, or learning disabilities therapist.

While first impressions are important, you should realize that most parents will already have heard a lot about you from their child. Often, the child will have said either very positive or very negative things about you. Most parents will approach you positively, or at least on a neutral basis, but a few of them, anxious and confused about what's going on at school, may have worked themselves up to a point of emotional outburst by the time they arrive for the conference.

Try to start with a favorable or at least a friendly remark when the parent enters the room. Sometimes teachers are so anxious to discuss the child's problems that they jump right into the heart of an issue rather than cautiously exploring the problem with the parent. Parents, too, have a tendency to initially blurt out the most serious problem that they have on their mind, which gets the conference off to a rather shaky start.

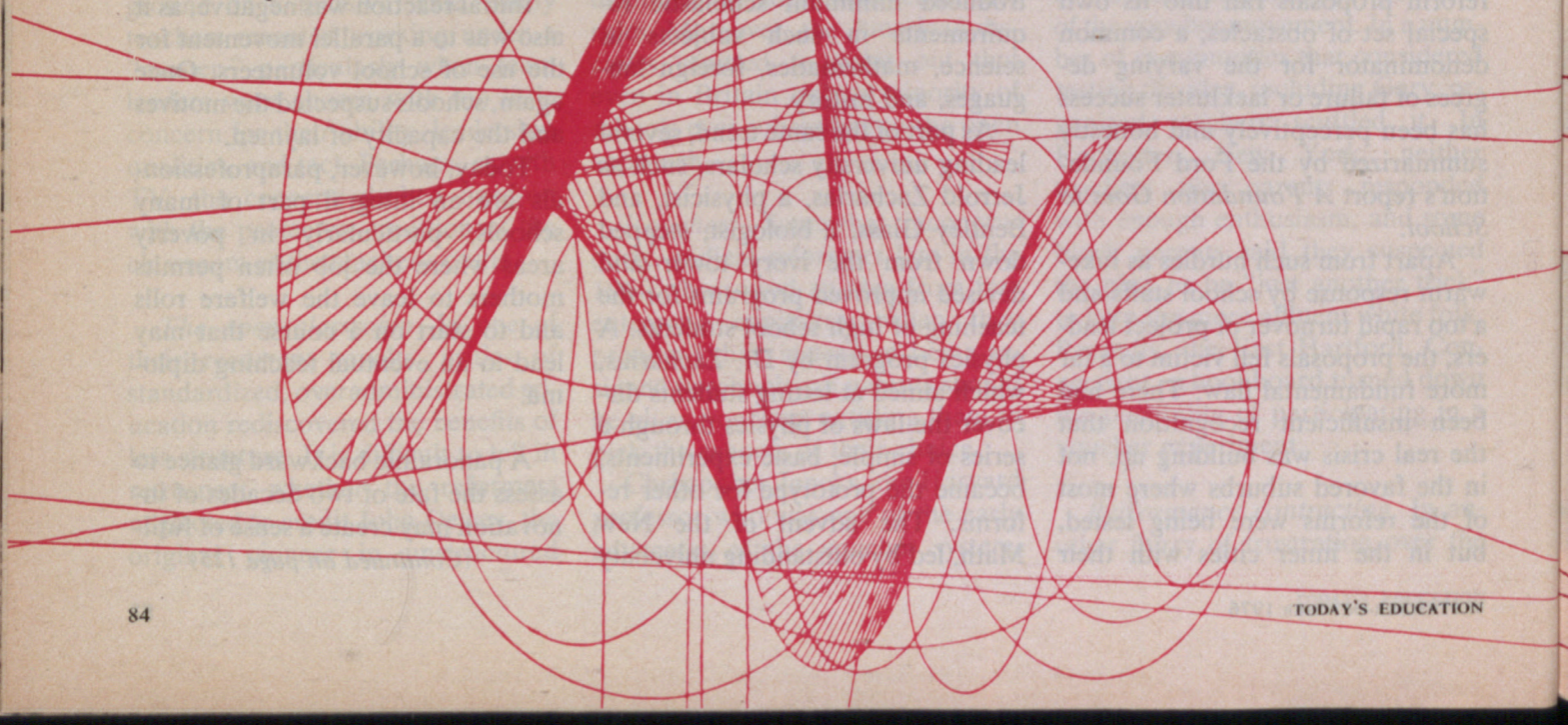
It may be helpful, therefore, to start by outlining what you plan to cover during the conference. This will, in effect, tell the parent whether or not you are going to cover something he or she wanted to discuss and probably will result in the parent's waiting to discuss a topic with you until you bring it up.

Talk with parents in language that they can readily understand. This means that you will function differently, according to the intellectual, social/cultural background of the parents. Communicate as simply but accurately as possible with all parents, but never be condescending.

In terminating the conference, be sure to give the parents an opportunity to make comments or raise questions. If possible, end in a positive vein, and a most effective way to do this is to commend them for coming. Tell the parents that you know how interested they are in their child's school performance, even when you suspect that they are not really that interested. In some instances, telling negligent parents how much you appreciate their interest and cooperation can instill a greater feeling of personal responsibility. Do not, under any circumstances, end the conference by making negative comments about the parents, since this can do little to help the child and quite a lot to reduce parent cooperation.

In conclusion, consider the following general dos and don'ts in conducting the parent conference. First, the dos.

Arrange for a private, uninterrupted session with the parents and



assure them that you will respect any specific requests to maintain confidences.

Be as friendly and relaxed as possible.

Explain to the parents that the child's behavior is the result of many variables rather than of simply one causative factor.

Describe performance as precisely as possible in terms you are sure the parents will understand.

Emphasize the child's strengths, assets, and positive accomplishments, making a *limited* number of realistic suggestions for their improvement.

Provide time for the parents to ask questions and encourage them to interrupt if they disagree with or do not understand something you have said.

Ask for their help and cooperation, saying that you can't educate a child effectively by yourself.

Try to gain insights into the parents' attitudes toward their child, the school, and you.

Listen carefully to what the parents have to say without showing alarm, disgust, or disappointment. Above all, don't panic if parents get very upset. Keep your cool and usually they will calm down.

Remember that the impressions parents get from you are often those that they will hold about the school as a whole.

Now for the don'ts.

Don't dwell on any of the child's inadequacies that are not subject to direct modification, such as his or her intelligence.

Don't discuss other teachers, students, or parents unless what you say is very positive. Telling tales, in addition to being unethical, will make parents unwilling to confide in you.

Don't answer questions the parents have that involve administrative decisions unless there is a very clear and consistent policy on the question raised and you are sure your interpretation of this policy is correct. When in doubt, refer them to the appropriate person.

Don't assume full adult responsibility for the child's education. Stress the importance of the parents' role and emphasize the fact that the child will progress faster if both home and school work together. Of course, you don't want to cop out by blaming parents or others for the child's current problems. In other words, assume your share of the responsibility, but no more.

Don't use misleading technical terms; even professionals disagree on their meaning, and it is fruitless to expect the parents to understand what you are talking about when you use educational jargon.

Don't sit behind a desk, since this suggests a position of higher authority rather than partnership and, in some cases, might prevent the establishment of good rapport.

Don't argue with parents, as arguing usually arouses negative feelings and does not solve the problem.

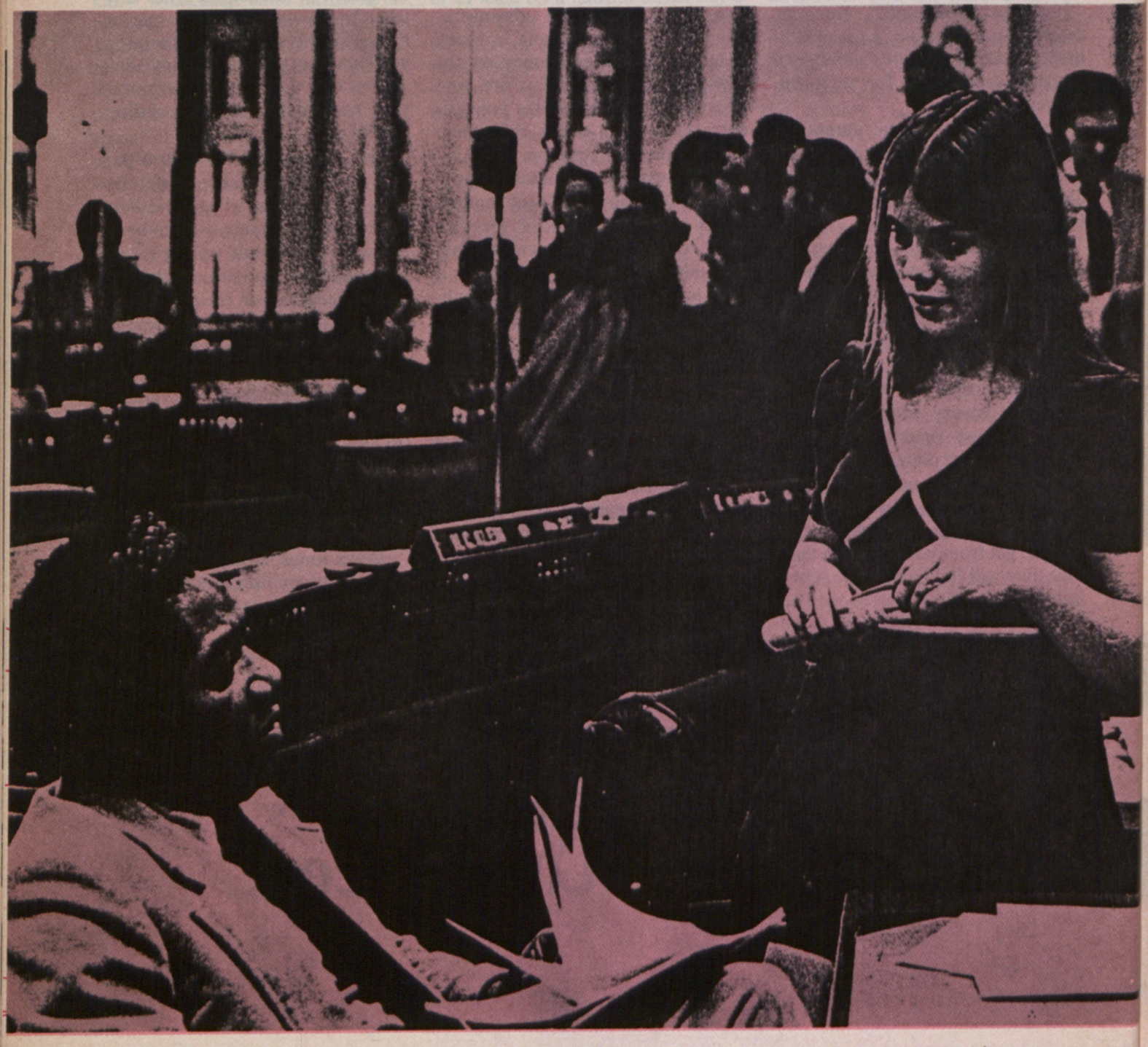
Don't criticize parents, even subtly, about their effectiveness as a father or mother. It would be hard for you to prove that either their adequacy or inadequacy has anything to do with the child's performance in the school, and therefore you should avoid making any accusations that they might interpret as your questioning their capabilities as parents.

Don't assume that because parents come to a teacher-conference they always want advice and help. Many parents merely want to be informed of their child's progress and feel confident in providing whatever help is necessary on their own. Other parents who do want the teacher to help them may need much more help than you will be able to provide in a 15-minute conference. Since you cannot possibly meet all of their needs, it is best that you avoid putting yourself in a situation where you attempt to prescribe all of the solutions to the problems in a short amount of time.

Don't forget how you would feel as a parent coming in for a conference with *you*. □

Easing the Stress of Parent-Teacher Conferences

Turning Students On to Active Citizenship



By JOHN F. KHANLIAN
Assistant to the Director, Institute for Political and Legal Education, Educational Improvement Center, Pitman, New Jersey.

An exciting new curriculum in secondary social studies known as the Institute for Political and Legal Education (IPLE) is currently stimulating students to active participation in community and political affairs. Taught in some 22 high schools in New Jersey as well as at pilot sites in several other states, the full-year community-based program provides students with practical experiences in politics, government, and the law.

The curriculum was designed to meet the needs of the new constituency created when the Twenty-Sixth Amendment lowered the voting age to 18 and the legal age of majority was similarly set by many state legislatures. Surveys taken in New Jersey of young people approaching these new rights and responsibilities revealed that the majority were unable to name their local and state representatives; did not know how to register to vote; did not understand the Bill of Rights; and, in general, expressed a feeling of disillusionment and frustration with "the system."

Offered to students as a replacement or supplementary elective for the second year of the state-mandated two years of American history, the IPLE course stresses the acquisition of knowledge and skills and emphasizes participation by the students, first in school (background study, discussion, role playing, simulations) and then outside the classroom in projects beneficial to the community.

Viewing the total community as the classroom, teachers use its many resources as a practical base for learning. In some classes, students are out of school as many as 35 days per year in field study and interning. Benefits of the course are both cognitive and affective: Following the year's study, students show positive increases in their political and legal knowledge and reveal an inclination to participate actively in the electoral system, government, and law-related fields.

IPLE comprises three basic units: Voter Education, Governmental Decision Making, and Individual Rights. In the Voter Education unit, students engage in such activities as school and community voter registration drives, campaigning for candidates, telephone canvassing and polling, organizing election-day transportation and babysitting, and conducting a simulated election in school.

The students not only become knowledgeable themselves but they also inform other members of the school and community about registration procedures, the use of voting machines, and campaign issues and candidates. Last fall, for example, students in the IPLE programs at the Peddie School and at Pennsauken, South Brunswick, and West Windsor-Plainsboro high schools sponsored school assemblies or candidates' nights open to the public, where they interviewed candidates for county and state offices and discussed important referendum questions on the ballot.

During a one-week period, Camden High School students conducted a voter registration canvass in that urban community. The week was breezy and somewhat rainy, but the weather made little difference. Clyde Jackson and some of his classmates registered 135 Camden residents. "We know it might be hard to get some of those people to vote," Clyde said, admitting that not everyone sees the worth of it. "But, I just told them, 'You have to make the best use of what you've got. Maybe your vote will only make a little change, but at least it's a change!' "

In Metuchen High School each fall, the major activity of the IPLE class is preelection polling by telephone of a random sample of voters in Metuchen and Edison Township. Last year, the class took two samplings of residents, polling a total of more than 2,500 persons. They predicted the exact percentage of the vote received by one victorious candidate for county freeholder. Their polls were also within a few percentage points of results for most other candidates and bond issues in the election.

The IPLE teacher, James McDonnell, is proud of the students' efforts. "They're really a great group of kids," he says, adding that after three years of accurate forecasting, the class is receiving much cooperation from local politicians, who have begun keeping an eye on the students' results.

In the unit on Governmental Decision Making, IPLE students can learn about the decision-making process in their own communities and in Trenton, the state capital. Many actually work as lobbyists for bills. In Trenton, the Institute has a Student Legislative Training Center, which is in its second year of operation under the leadership of Eileen Duffy and Steve Vertun, two students from Parsippany High School. The Center helps students

← *The high school student and the legislator. In a face-to-face exchange, a student learns more about state government.*

learn firsthand about the state legislature. "The initial program last year was a huge success," says co-coordinator Steve Vertun. "The students worked on many bills, and lots of them watched their bills go as far as the Governor's desk."

As part of their government study, many students are involved in interning with professional lobbyists, legislators, the State Department of Education, local planning boards, consumer protection agencies, and so on. They also undertake local community research projects that often result in real legislative action. Parsippany High School students, for instance, did an extensive survey for the town's recreation department and made recommendations for park and recreation land use that the town's planning commission will follow.

As a result of successful lobbying by IPLE students from Parsippany High's sister school, Parsippany Hills, the town council introduced a pilot program of recycling newspapers and glass. (The students first conducted feasibility studies and surveyed residents as to their interest in such a program.)

In the Individual Rights unit of the curriculum, students not only examine issues raised in key Supreme Court cases on freedom of expression and due process of law, but they also participate in classroom simulations, mock trials, and moot courts, where they take on the roles of judges, jurors, defense and prosecuting attorneys, and so forth.

Law-focused education develops the students' ability to analyze and to reason and provides them with knowledge and "survival skills" for dealing with real-life problems in areas such as the juvenile court system, school law, and consumer law. Here, as in other units, professional resource people are brought into the classroom, and field trips and interning opportunities are arranged outside of school.

Lynne Kresge, the Institute teacher-coordinator for Vineland High School, a recent adopter of the program, says that most civics students are "not very much up on what's happening in government" but are anxious to learn and willing to think things through.

"Most students are cynical at first and don't think the efforts of one person can bring about changes, but they find that their efforts do get results," she explains. "Students won't necessarily become idealistic after taking the course, but they will have a more balanced view. Our system works far better than most people realize."

The IPLE curriculum materials may be purchased at cost. These include four comprehensive manuals with resource information and teaching techniques and a number of supplementary student leader guides. Four filmstrips on pertinent subjects have also been developed and are available.

Materials price lists, order forms, and brochures describing the Institute are available free of charge. The program may also be seen in action by those who arrange visits to any of eight IPLE New Jersey schools that serve as demonstration sites. For further information, write to:

Institute for Political and Legal Education
Educational Improvement Center
P.O. Box 426
Pitman, New Jersey 08071

Between 1971 and 1974, under an ESEA Title III grant, the Institute for Political and Legal Education program was field-tested in 14 high schools representing a cross section of urban, suburban, rural, public, and private schools. Approximately $238,000 of ESEA funds were spent to enable staff, teachers, and students to write and revise curriculum, conduct training and testing, and evaluate the data acquired. In May 1974, the U.S. Office of Education validated IPLE as innovative, cost-efficient, and exportable and approved and funded it for national dissemination.

Under the direction of Barry E. Lefkowitz, who started the program eight years ago when he was a teacher at Burlington City High School, the Institute staff, comprising five professionals and two secretaries, conducts teacher training and student workshops during the school year at centrally located colleges in New Jersey. Experts in the fields of campaigning techniques and organization, opinion polling, and the uses of the media work with the students in September at the election campaigning workshop.

IPLE activities reach their climax each year in the annual Model Congress, a three-day mock legislature in which several hundred students from all over the state convene to debate, in committee and in full house sessions, the proposed legislation that they have drafted. This year's Bicentennial '76 Model Congress was held May 7-9 at Stockton State College.

In addition to their in-state activities, staff members assisted by teachers and students have been conducting a series of awareness sessions and five-day training workshops in such states as South Carolina, Oregon, Illinois, and Iowa, where certain school districts have committed themselves to adopt or adapt the program.

The training sessions provide educators with instructional methods and techniques, familiarity with use of materials, and organizational strategies for implementation. A unique feature of the workshops is that each teacher who attends is accompanied by a student who can subsequently serve as a peer teacher in the class. During 1976-77, the Institute will be conducting training sessions for schools that are planning to begin the program next year. □

Memories of Student Teaching Days

By **MARJI GOLD**
Senior in Early Childhood Education, University of South Alabama, Mobile.

Ah, memories. Memories of student teaching days. Remember? Way back when.

For me, "way back when" is only yesterday. I am a senior and a student of early childhood education at the University of South Alabama. My schedule involves a series of three blocks, or quarters, of classroom observation and student teaching. During the first block (Winter 1976), I kept a log of my observations and, even more important to me, of the feelings I had about what I saw.

The class I observed was made up of 29 first grade children in Mobile, Alabama. In reading my recollections, you may experience a feeling of *déjà vu*.

Ah, memories.

"Put your finger on one group of 10, Sara. Put your finger on the next group. Good. And the next. How many groups of 10 are there? What?"

(Maybe I'm not fit to be a teacher. Maybe there's something wrong with me. This stuff is perfectly clear to me!)

"OK, Sara. Let's see. How about counting by ones. Good. Now, how many ones are there in one group of 10?"

(*Please* have the right answer. Please!)

"Ten? *Great*, Sara! OK. Ten plus how many in the second group of 10?" (Oh, no, she's going to count them. Well, inflation has affected the dollar, maybe it's affected groups of 10, too.)

"Huh? Ten? Right. Ten in the first group plus 10 in the second group. How many is that?

"What? 20? Plus one more group is 30? Oh, wow!"

(I wonder what the master's program in early childhood education is like! I love this! This is where I belong! This—)

"Sara! Why did you write 40?"

(Tomorrow I transfer back into drama!)

Josuah is such a smart boy that his teacher ordered him a special book called the third grade math book or some such thing.

Leah and Shana and Joel are smart, too, but three more books mean three more requisitions, and three more requisitions mean that the principal must sign on the line three more times and the central dispatcher must process three more forms and that will take three more months. And anyway, why do first graders need third grade books?

Sorry, Leah and Shana and Joel. Number your papers from 1 to 5 like the rest of the class. Write down 3 + 2= like the rest of the class. Sit still like the rest of the class! Do you want to go to the office?

The teacher, obviously thrilled with her plans, said, "Here is a diamond-shaped piece of construction paper, and here is a piece of yarn. Today we will all make kites." Twenty-nine little identical kites. I looked around at their faces and could not find 29 identical children.

Nathan asked, "May I make a box kite?"

"Box kite?" demanded the teacher. "No!"

I said, "Please?"

The teacher relented.

When Nathan completed his kite, the teacher said, "Oh, dear, we'll never be able to hang this like the others—it isn't flat."

It hung. □

By CARL A. BONUSO
Social Studies Teacher, South High School, Valley Stream, Long Island, New York.

And the sign flashed out its warning . . .
"The words of the prophets are written on the subway walls, and tenement halls"
*And whispered in the sounds of silence.**

The walls of ancient Pompeii and Rome quite frequently contained pictographs or markings which the Italians, borrowing a root from the Greek word for "write" or "draw," *graphein,* called *graffio*. Archaeologists termed such scratchings *graffiti*. Thus, speeding through the centuries, we arrive at what many educators consider a significant problem of the contemporary school—graffiti.

Graffiti on walls, on desks, in bathrooms are in fact so often, so crudely, and so belligerently sprinkled throughout school buildings that the scrawlers are more often referred to as vandals than as scholars, artists, or philosophers, no matter what their subject.

From the standpoint of vandalism, it is true that graffitists deface and destroy millions of dollars of public school property every year. Research indicates that in many cases the schools that are damaged have outdated facilities, staffs with poor morale, and students who are bored.

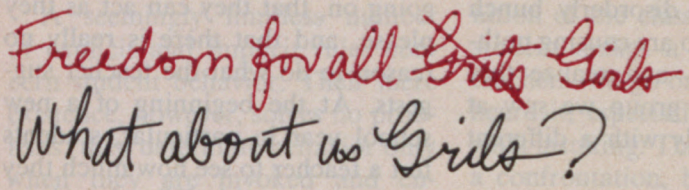
The point here is that graffitism is a form of expression. Therefore, despite attempts to prevent students from writing on school property, to the degree that they feel their ideas, thoughts, and identities are being suppressed, they will find various and sometimes destructive and costly ways of expressing themselves.

Graffiti come in several varieties. Some slogans or caricatures are meant to be pornographic, lewd; some are political or social statements, viewpoints, or demands; others are simply names or symbols. Students whose graffiti consist of their names or symbols are simply crying out, "I am!" Such graffiti look something like this:

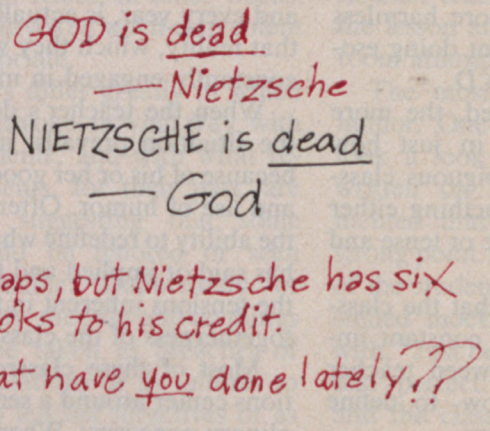
These identifying marks or signatures, meaningless to an outsider but recognizable to one's own peer group, are all designed to satisfy the students' need for independence and freedom, as well as their desire for prestige, recognition, and/or attention. These are needs that we all have, though we do not all attempt to satisfy them the same way.

The depersonalization of society that subordinates identity to numbers and personality to social utility also results in political or social graffiti.

Jim Hougan, writing in the November 1972 *Harper's*, suggests that "there was a time when these same walls were the home of the filthy limerick, the inviting telephone number, the obscene drawing . . . there are still remnants of these phenomena, but they grow increasingly anemic. Today the Men's Room [both in and out of schools—and, I'm told, the Women's as well] is a political forum par excellence."



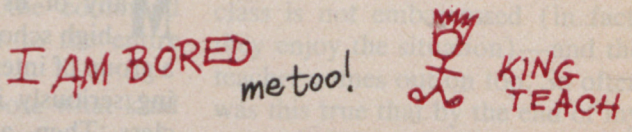
The motivation for graffiti writers need not always be found in a serious quest for identity or desire to express some suppressed political or social message. Rather, graffiti satisfy a need to escape to a world of fantasy or play. To more and more students, graffiti have become a game requiring wit and humor. Consider the following retorts taken off your typical "All-American" bathroom wall:



A cute attempt at fun, a harmless form of expression? Why should the educator (among others) be the slightest bit concerned about graffiti? One answer is that some kinds of graffiti tell more than they say. They reveal something of the writer, and they may reveal something of the educational climate as well—and both kinds of information can be of great help to teachers.

Case in point: Student has been in class for two weeks and teacher still does not know his name but rather refers to him as "Uh, yes, you up front." It is not too surprising to find that same hand no longer raised in inquiry but busily doodling MARTY, MARTY, MARTY on the desk.

Case in point: The teacher is always right. It has been two months, and the teacher has yet to accept an opinion other than his or her own. No wonder scribblings such as this might appear:



These are not written in notebooks but are purposely etched into the desks, signifying revenge, an act of independence, a mindless act, or maybe a combination thereof.

Case in point: The administration has refused to allow criticism of their policies in the school newspaper. The school newspaper has become more of an administrative newsletter than a forum for student, teacher, and administrative views and activities. No wonder you would see scratched upon the walls such comments as "Student Power," "Might Makes Right," and "Down with the Establishment!"

Maybe those very offensive forms of graffiti are trying to say something, if indeed, they are not *screaming* out to be heard. Maybe the student who scrawls a big swastika on a desk is saying, "This is what I believe. So what! Prove me wrong—please!"

Graffiti like these responses to school situations will probably cease to appear as the situations are improved. When students can communicate honestly and directly with the adults in the school, they will be less likely to run behind a bathroom door to express their views. When their minds are engaged in class, their hands will not be chronicling resentment.

And in the naked light I saw,
ten thousand people maybe more.
People talking without speaking
People hearing without listening
People writing songs that voices
never share and no one dare
*disturb the sound of silence.** □

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Classroom Discipline: A Negotiable Item

By **ROBERT G. WEGMANN**
Associate Professor, University of Houston at Clear Lake City.

Many of us have walked down high school corridors and seen a group of interested students working seriously in a fellow teacher's class. Then, an hour or two later, we see a bored, disorderly bunch of youngsters who are causing nothing but trouble—and realize that this is the same group we saw at work earlier, only with a different teacher.

What makes the difference? What do some teachers *do* that creates a productive classroom atmosphere, and what do others do that gets them into trouble?

After five years of high school teaching, I had the opportunity to spend several months sitting in the back of a dozen high school classrooms, just watching. No one seemed to mind my presence; after all, there's nothing more harmless than a graduate student doing esoteric research on a Ph.D.

The more I watched, the more interested I became in just how teachers turn the ambiguous classroom setting into something either relaxed and productive or tense and unproductive.

I began to realize that the classroom is the scene of constant implicit negotiation between teacher and students over how to define what is happening there.

All teachers—elementary and secondary—engage in complex management activity. They must not only organize the lessons and classroom routine, but also maintain common agreement that the group is engaged in an important learning activity, that the teacher is in charge of it, and that students are appropriately engaged in it.

Some students, for their part, will suggest by their words and behavior that nothing of any importance is going on, that they can act as they please, and that there is really no reason to do what the teacher suggests. At the beginning of a new school year in particular, students test a teacher to see how much they can get away with. What is at issue is whose definition of the situation will be adopted.

The meaning of the classroom gathering, in other words, is negotiable. This state of affairs comes as a shock to many beginning teachers: They think they are entering an ongoing social reality called the high school classroom, whereas in fact their first objective, that year and every year, is actually to create that reality, which they will then be constantly engaged in maintaining.

When the teacher's definition of the situation prevails, it is usually because of his or her good judgment and use of humor. Often the key is the ability to redefine what a student has said or implied and thus handle the tensions inherent in the isolated togetherness of the classroom.

Most of these classroom definitions center around a series of disciplinary concerns: Where will each student be located in the classroom? How will students who are late be dealt with? Who speaks, when, and for how long? What shall we do next? Is a given student's behavior

reasonable or a challenge to the teacher's authority? Should it be treated as thoughtless or "serious"? Should the teacher ignore what happened, ask about it, or proceed immediately to rebuke? If a student was directed to do something at a later date, will the teacher take the time to make sure it actually gets done or just forget about it? Should a rebuke be given with a forgiving explanation ("I know you're all tired this morning, but . . ."), or in a tone of voice that implies there is no excuse for this behavior? Will the teacher make an issue out of this or let it go?

A seemingly limitless number of explicit and implicit rules concern student behavior. Their mere existence, however, solves no problems; they determine behavior only when they are invoked and enforced. In most classes, for example, students are supposed to speak only if they have raised their hands and been recognized. In many classes, however, students simply join in a discussion with no formal recognition and no complaint from the teacher. Yet the same teacher may, if things become disorderly, rebuke a student for speaking out without recognition. Rules, in other words, exist to be invoked when convenient and appropriate.

Teachers differ greatly in which rules they invoke, in what way, with which students, and with what results. Students, for their part, are constantly suggesting that some rules should be ignored or seen as inapplicable. Deliberately or thoughtlessly, they say and do things that can be taken as breaches of school regulations or as failures to conform to teacher directives or as insults. The key question is: What happens then?

First of all, the teacher chooses whether to address individuals or the class. Some teachers prefer to address rebukes or directions to the entire group, even when they are intended for only one or two individuals. This is generally not effective. Directions given to a whole group can be easily ignored, as if they were not heard or were intended for someone else. On the other hand, even when the entire group is out of order, a specific directive to a particular person ("John, sit down!") will often have an effect not only on that one person but on the whole group. The direct, personal nature of the command seems to carry over to the entire class.

Teachers also choose what kind of response best supports their definition of the classroom. Suppose a student makes a wisecrack. Some teachers will go on as if they hadn't heard it, especially if it was somewhat insulting. This response avoids a confrontation, but it also makes the classroom feel somehow "unreal." And it often leads to further insulting remarks from some students and embarrassed, noncooperative silence from others.

An alternative response is direct confrontation. Although effective in its own way, confrontation is likely to lead to mutual recrimination, "scenes," and other difficulties that distract teacher and students from the lesson and create a tense classroom atmosphere.

The most effective response is humor. One teacher, for example, took a look at something he had written on the board and commented that spelling was not his strong point. "No, it's not," said one of the students. The teacher simply smiled mockingly and came back with, "Just because I'm not god-like and perfect!" Everyone laughed, and the class went on.

When I was teaching, I don't think I ever appreciated the function of humor as much as I have since watching situations develop in many different classrooms. Self-contained classrooms put students in close but impersonal proximity to each other and to teachers. Tension is inherent in this arrangement, even if nothing much occurs. Humor cuts into the tension. Humor relaxes.

When used to cope with a challenge to the teacher's authority, humor allows the challenge to be redefined as something "light." The fact that it is the *teacher* who leaves the class laughing somehow puts the teacher very much in charge. The class is not embarrassed (in fact, they enjoy the situation)—and the teacher comes out on top. So often was this true that by the end of my research I was convinced that humor is the single most important correlate of good teaching.

Another aspect of classroom discipline that surprised me, once I had the luxury of being an uninvolved observer, was the degree to which the students themselves can maintain good order. In classrooms where the teacher has created some degree of rapport with the group, the student who causes trouble suddenly faces dirty looks and unfriendly comments from the rest of the class—and generally backs off. It is one thing to face a teacher's disapproval; it is another to face the disapproval of everyone in the room.

All of this may not seem unusual; situations like the ones I observed come up a thousand times a day in any high school. Yet that's just the point. Day after day, as such situations occur, a teacher has to decide how to define them, how to take them, how to respond to them. Some ways of responding leave everyone feeling good and yet leave the teacher in command; other ways of responding leave the whole class feeling that the teacher is unfriendly, arbitrary, or "out of it." The choice of response affects whether, in this classroom, it will be possible to teach. □

Students' Learning Styles

How to determine, strengthen, and capitalize on them.

By **FRANK RIESSMAN**
Professor of Education, Queens College of the City University of New York.

In order to help youngsters—particularly inner-city ones—develop their strengths, teachers need to understand their cognitive or learning styles. One index of style relates to whether an individual learns most easily by reading or hearing, or whether he or she learns best by physically doing things. These examples are not to be conceived of as separate from one another; such combinations as a visual-physical learner are possible.

Other dimensions of style reveal different aspects of learning custom. For example, some people like to work under pressure; they like a deadline and they like tests. Some people like to work for long periods of time without a break. Some like to work in a cold room; others, in a warm one. Some people like to think while walking; some like to shift places and take frequent breaks. Some people take a long time to warm up, whereas others get into their work very quickly. Some people like to have all the facts in front of them before they do any generalizing, and others prefer to have only a few facts. Typically, however, *people do not know their own style* nearly well enough.

Today, if a child doesn't learn, it is quickly assumed that the difficulties must be due to some emotional block or conflict or a learning disability. There is, however, a different way of looking at the problem. Children may not be learning because their methods of learning are not suited to their style, and hence they cannot best use their mental power. Even if their troubles are in part emotional or due to inner conflict, it still may be possible to concentrate profitably on the specific expression of the difficulty itself—the learning pattern.

Unfortunately, teachers too often behave like psychologists and social workers. They do not sufficiently stress learning processes and styles of learning, apparently preferring motivational categories. One way to build appropriate prestige in the teaching profession is simply to concentrate on the development of what education is most concerned with—teaching and learning.

There is a great deal more to study habits than is explained in the usual introductory psychology textbook. The typical suggestions in these works are based upon experiments which seem to indicate that distributive learning is the best approach, that one should survey material first, etc. But very little in these books addresses the idiosyncratic factors that are involved in learning.

For example, some people simply can't tolerate surveying a chapter before reading it. They become so anxious and disturbed by being asked to look at the overall view of the chapter that they can't function. These people want to read a chapter atomistically; this is their style. It won't help simply to tell such a person that he or she is not proceeding in the right way, and the same is true in terms of the general recommendation that a student should have a quiet place to study. Strangely enough, at least to those who prefer quiet, some people study quite well in a noisy place or with certain kinds of noise. Quiet places are not best for them. But the textbook does not tell you this because, in general, a quiet spot to study has proved to be most effective.

The same argument applies to examinations or tests. For some people, a test provides just the right mild anxiety to stimulate them to integrate a great deal of material. But for large numbers of people, tests are terrible because the tests disorganize them, make them too anxious, and thus prevent them from working. Tests, in short, are not conducive to the learning style of these individuals.

When some argue that tests are marvelous because they aid pupils by providing corrections and criticism, they are referring to persons with a different style. Undoubtedly, tests work well for some pupils, but others forget the corrections on tests because it disturbs them too much to remember their wrong answers. Therefore, depending upon a pupil's style and way of dealing with these problems, tests may or may not be useful.

The task of the educator is to try to determine how the strengths of the individual's learning style can be utilized and the weaknesses reduced or controlled. In approaching the problem, the first aim is to have the person become aware of the strengths and potentials in his or her style—because this is going to be the source of power. Thus, if an individual has a physical style, he or she has to learn the special attri-

butes of this style and how to use them.

Youngsters who like to learn by listening and speaking—aural style—are unlikely to change completely and become, say, readers. This is not to suggest that such pupils will not learn to read and write fluently, but their best learning—the long-lasting, deep learning that gets into their muscles—may derive from speaking and hearing.

Take an illustration of a different type. An inner-city youngster tells us that he sits down to work but cannot concentrate. It is crucial in the diagnosis of style to ascertain as precisely as possible exactly what takes place in this youngster's routine. For example, When does he study? What time does he come home from school? What does he do first when he comes into the house? Where does he study?

In the popular TV series, Welcome Back, Kotter, *the teacher tries to understand his varied assortment of inner-city youngsters and how they learn.*

He may say: "I come home, throw down my books, and then I remember that I have to do some work. So I try to work. I take out the book, but my mind wanders. I look at the book; I look away. I can't get into the work; I begin to feel discouraged; I begin to feel bad. I get very worried, and then I run away from the work."

There are many possibilities operating in this pattern. One possibility is that this youngster has a slow warm-up period. He does not easily get into something new; he does not shift from whatever he has been doing before, whether he's been outside playing ball or inside listening to the radio.

This may be due to a number of reasons. He may be a physical learner. If this is so, he must be involved physically in the work process, and this takes time. If this is our student's pattern, then he must understand that being slow to warm up is not necessarily a negative quality; it is simply a way of approaching work.

A student with a slow warm-up style may have a great deal of perseverance once he gets involved. Once immersed, he may go deeper and deeper into the work and not be able to shift away from it easily. The inability to shift then doesn't operate as a negative feature but as a positive element in his style. The youngster described here rarely gets to this point, however. He usually schedules his time so that he works for one hour. That's too little time because it takes him a half hour to warm up. Consequently, he has to plan a longer time period of work, recognizing in advance that it will take him a while to warm up.

Over a period of time, the warm-up period will shorten, because part of the difficulty in the long warm-up is the anxiety that emerges. As an individual works, his anxiety decreases and, concomitantly, his interest has a chance to increase.

Let us take another example—one in which the persons' strengths can be used to deal with their weaknesses. How do you teach youngsters to read when reading is not their basic style? Everyone needs reading and writing ability regardless of his or her style. In order to teach reading to youngsters for whom it is stylistically uncongenial, one may want to use role playing, which is more related to the action style of the individual. The child can read about something that he or she has just acted out, or the youngster can read about a trip that was recently taken.

While teaching reading under these conditions, teachers must remember that the child is developing minimal efficiency in an area that is not rooted in his or her learning style. In a sense, the teacher is going after the Achilles heel—the weakness, in this case the reading difficulty—by developing it through the child's strength, whether it be visual, aural, or physical. This is a basic tactic for defeating or limiting the weakness.

There are some other ways one can employ the strategy of style. For example, inner-city youngsters ordinarily come to the school situation with poor listening habits. They are not accustomed to having people read stories to them. Effective teachers can teach them how to listen even though this may not be their best mode of learning.

One technique is simply to make a game out of listening. The teacher asks, for instance, "What is the sum of six and five?" Everybody in the class must answer several times. The pupil cannot fall asleep in such a class. Answering the question once doesn't leave the child free because he or she may be asked the same question or, perhaps, different ones often.

This is an excellent technique for keeping youngsters alert, and it has been effective with students who are not used to listening for extended periods of time.

In an April 1975 article in *Learning*, Beth S. Atwood points up some valuable classroom techniques for furthering students' awareness of their own and other learning styles. She suggests that students survey their own and their classmates' ways of learning. The surveys include:

I am most alert for learning new things in the: (1) early morning, (2) midday, (3) late afternoon, or (4) evening.

The easiest way(s) for me to learn something is to: (1) read it, (2) hear it, (3) see it in pictures, (4) try it, (5) write it in my own words, (6) explain it to someone else, or (7) draw a diagram or picture of it.

The kinds of learning situations that bother me most are: (1) large group sessions, (2) small group sessions, (3) using learning games such as spelling bees, (4) working with a partner who chose me, (5) working with a partner the teacher chose for me, (6) working with a partner I don't know, (7) working by myself, (8) working on team projects, (9) working in a very quiet place, (10) working in a very noisy place, (11) being interrupted while I'm working, (12) having to take a break in the middle of my work, (13) having to stop when I'm not finished, or (14) having nothing to do while I wait for others to finish.

In the same article, Atwood also "encourages students to read about and collect examples of people who work in nonroutine fashions. This will help them recognize the diversity of learning styles that are possible and how these styles or patterns differ from one person to another. For example, artists, writers, and inventors are famous for working and studying at odd hours, sometimes needing absolute solitude or, at other times, wanting constant contact with people."

Everybody's style has certain strengths. And everybody has an Achilles heel. In developing a significant change in learning, one must control the weakness and utilize the strengths. This is the central problem of the strategy of style, especially in its application to the inner-city pupils in our schools.

In *Inner Conflict and Defense,* Daniel R. Miller and Guy E. Swanson say that the following dimensions seem to characterize the cognitive style of many inner-city youngsters:

1. Strong development of nonaural senses, such as the visual, tactile, and kinesthetic.
2. Well-developed nonverbal forms of communication, such as gestures....
3. Greater expression in informal, unstructured, spontaneous situations.
4. Positive response to learning in cooperative settings, such as children-teaching-children and youth-tutoring-youth designs.
5. Emphasis on learning from experience and action; a strong responsiveness to work-study programs, field-based learning, and action learning.

Inner-city children have considerable facility with informal or public language, and this is expressed best in unstructured, spontaneous situations; they verbalize more freely around actions and things they can see; they understand more language than they speak; their nonverbal forms of expression are highly developed; and they often have imaginative and perceptive associations with words.

Anyone who has worked with inner-city children knows that one of the surest ways to involve them in an activity is to make it into a game. For example, I know of teachers who have set up a mock court in the classroom to enable the class to discuss discipline, justice, and government in a meaningful way. Originally, the teachers had found it difficult to interest their children in these subjects, but the excitement of a make-believe court attracted considerable attention and provided a good beginning for discussion on a higher, more abstract level.

What is the source of the games orientation of inner-city children? Apparently, it is related to their down-to-earth, spontaneous approach to things. This extraverbal communication is usually called forth in games, most of which are not dependent on words. Also, most

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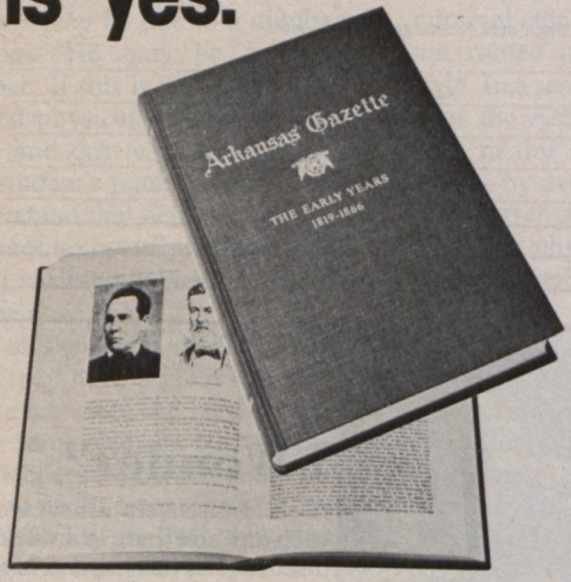

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Arkansas Gazette.

Inner-city children seem to learn best through games, role playing, doing, seeing, talking, and learning in groups.

games are person-centered and are generally concerned with direct action and visible results. Games are usually sharply defined and structured, with clear-cut goals. The rules are definite and can be readily absorbed. The inner-city child enjoys the challenge of the game and feels that he or she can do it.

But despite latent creativity and a capacity for using language in rich and free fashion with well-developed nonverbal ways of communicating, inner-city children often fail to realize their potential because of lack of mastery of Standard English. The problem for the educator is how to help them to attain this mastery so that their creative potential can be fully realized.

It would be easy to say, as many people have, that we must give these children what most middle-class parents give their children—stimulation in the use of language through reading, discussion, and the like. However, it is probable that this alone would not work, nor would it make the best use of inner-city children's particular mode of functioning. Their nonlinguistic skills should not be ignored or suppressed, but rather they should be brought out and integrated with verbal communication.

The basic dimensions that characterize the cognitive style of inner-city youngsters should be built upon in the educational program. Inner-city children seem to learn best through games, role playing, doing, seeing, talking, and learning in groups. These strengths can be captured and used to expand their reading and writing abilities without necessarily developing a reading or writing style.

Thus, it would seem essential that the method of teaching formal language to inner-city children take advantage of their communication style by employing teaching techniques that stress the visual, the physical, and the active as much as possible. We must be careful not to try to make these children over into replicas of middle-class children. The educational system should be pluralistic enough to find a place for a variety of learning styles. □

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Peripatetic Pupils

Children who globe-trot with parents are a unique breed.

Americans are on the move. Many move from place to place within the States, and in large numbers, they move from country to country, periodically returning to the States between foreign assignments. Wherever they go, many take their children with them.

The children who globe-trot with their parents are a unique breed. Ruth Hill Useem of Michigan State University, who has studied these young people, says that 92 percent of them are bilingual or trilingual and that about 90 percent of them say their parents are their best friends. (See the article on third-culture kids by Dr. Useem and Richard D. Downie on page 103 of this issue.)

In the opinion of these young people, what are the advantages of living overseas? The disadvantages? When they return to the States from time to time, what can U.S. schools do to help them adjust to life in an American school? What are their opinions of Americans and the American life-style?

To get some answers to these questions and several others, Today's Education *talked with three students at the Tehran (Iran) American School—probably the largest American school overseas. At the time of the interview in February of this year, Bob McDowell was 18 and a senior; Amy Mouser, 16 and a sophomore; and Cathy Wells, 17 and a senior. Their comments follow.*

Today's Education: How many moves have your families made during your school careers?

Cathy Wells: My family came to Iran from Texas three years ago. That was our first move. Before I was enrolled in Tehran American School [TAS], I had been in school in Palestine, a small town in Texas. I completed ninth grade there, and then I came here for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. I'm in my third and last year in school here.

Bob McDowell: It's going to take a little bit of counting for me. Maybe Amy should go ahead.

Amy Mouser: I started first grade in Tripoli, Libya, and repeated first grade in Texas; second and third grades were in Tripoli; fourth, fifth, and sixth were in Venezuela. Seventh was started in Dubai, a very small state south of here run by a sheik. I finished my seventh grade in Texas. Eighth, ninth, and now tenth here in Tehran.

Bob: OK. The number of moves is nine, I think. I started kindergarten in Cairo, Egypt, and from there went on to first and second grades in Washington, DC. Then from there I went over to Tripoli, Libya, where I finished up second grade and had third grade. Back to the States, this time to Wooster, Ohio—it's right near Cleveland—for fourth. Overseas again to Somalia for fifth, sixth, and seventh. Back to the United States for eighth, ninth, tenth, and eleventh in Barrington Hills, a town in the Chicago area, and I'm here for twelfth.

Also, because we were evacuated from Libya during the six-day war, I went to school for six weeks in a Catholic convent in Malta, and my family also went to Tehran for three months sometime in that period. So I was at Tehran American School about eight years ago.

Today's Education: Why have your families made these moves?

Amy: My father works for an oil company. Usually, he works on a two-year contract, and the longest I've been in one place is four years.

Bob: My father and mother were both born overseas, and they like overseas life. Dad's major in college was Middle East Affairs. He has been and is a management consultant.

Today's Education: Are your families anticipating moving again?

Amy: My junior year I will either be here or in the States. And then my senior year, I could end up in Singapore or in the States.

Cathy: I'll go to the States for college next. And my parents are undecided now on whether they'll stay here or move somewhere else. My father's with an oil company.

Today's Education: Have your parents consulted you about any of the moves?

Cathy: When my parents were talking about coming over here, they asked my two sisters and me how we'd feel about moving out of the States and out of our hometown, because we had lived there all our lives. We were all gung ho about the

idea. We said, "That will be great." I think we were all ready for a change.

Today's Education: What grades were your sisters in at that time?

Cathy: They were in middle school. Sixth and seventh grades.

When we got here, we were homesick at first, but since then we've enjoyed Iran.

Because I'm going back to the States to college next year, I'm not concerned about new moves my family will make, except that I'm going to visit them wherever they are, and I'd like to see some place different from Iran. So I'm trying to get them to move again.

Today's Education: How do your sisters feel about another move?

Cathy: Well, the one who's a sophomore—she's in Amy's class—she wants to stay here, I think, because she has a lot of friends and she's just now getting accustomed to Iran.

Bob: When we moved over here, we'd been in the States for four years, and that's the longest we had ever lived in any one spot.

I had established myself in a high school that I liked, and I didn't really want to move. I was in my senior year, and I had a circle of friends. However, I could see that it was tearing my parents up staying in the States. They like the easy, cool life in the Middle East. They cannot cope with the American life-style and so they were desperate to move.

I had very little choice about the move this last time. However, if I had really gotten desperate, I suppose they would have said, "Well, we don't have to move." But they knew I could learn to adjust, because I'd been over here before.

Last summer, before we could find a house, we were in a little apartment way downtown in Tehran. We knew nobody, and we spent the whole time in those apartments. So last summer was the most miserable I've ever had in my life. It was just the feeling of isolation, knowing nobody, going nowhere.

But now that we have our house and I've met people, I love it here at school. I think it's one of the most fun places I've ever lived.

Today's Education: Let's discuss a bit more something that you've touched upon already: the subject of friends. In his book, *A Nation of Strangers,* Vance Packard says that "a young man who had been raised in the military establishment confessed to him that since boyhood he had difficulty developing close friendships. He was certain," says Packard, "that the reason was that while he was growing up his close friends were from military families who usually rotated out every two years. The pain of repeatedly losing friends caused him unwittingly, he suspected, to start shunning close friendships."

What's your reaction to that?

Bob: I've found a lot of people here shunning dating because they say, "In a year or so I'll leave and have to break off the relationship." My reaction is Why be miserable here? People should be mature enough to accept when someone has to leave. They should be able to develop close friends here.

Cathy: I agree. I didn't have close friends until this year, though. I don't have any reasons—

Amy: You don't have to have reasons.

Cathy: I know, but there should be some kind of answer. Why didn't I have friends? What was wrong?

But this year I've had quite a few friends. I know they're not going to be around next year, but I'm making plans to go see them wherever they are. We can still be close. Letters can keep us close.

Bob: I've got a lot of friends here. And I really get disgusted with people who say, "Well, I don't want to get to know anybody." They box themselves in, and then they complain because everybody else boxes themselves in.

Today's Education: What percentage of the students are boxing themselves in?

Bob: It's a very small minority—about 20 percent.

Amy: I'd say mostly the new people, and it takes some time—just give them time.

Cathy: Of course, when you move someplace it's going to be hard to make new friends, but if you don't get out and try, you're not going to make friends at all. It seems like students here have a leave-me-alone attitude.

Amy: We don't have school spirit.

Today's Education: Do you attribute this to the fact that people are afraid to make friends?

Bob: In a way. You can point to a thousand excuses. It boils down to one thing: They're afraid to extend themselves.

Cathy: Well, here the people come and go—they don't really know what's happening, what's expected of them, how they should act for school things. When I first got here, I didn't know what was accepted. I didn't know what to wear. The first day I came here I wore a dress.

Bob: Ah!

Cathy: People had eyes about this big, you know, "What's this funny girl wearing a dress for?"

Today's Education: Peer pressure, pressure from other students as you enter a new school. How have you reacted to that in terms of how you dress or behave?

Cathy: I wear dresses all the time. I'm notorious for it.

Amy: On peer pressure, I would say that a lot of kids who come here don't have strong characters and they get involved with dope—and that's harmful. Dope is easy to purchase here.

Bob: When I moved here, I didn't feel any peer pressure, because I'm an avid individualist. I don't change my personality to get along—just to fit the puzzle.

I don't think that in everyday

conversation you have to throw out a four-letter word every other sentence. So some people here think I speak rather strangely. Well, let them think that.

Amy: I want to get back to something Bob mentioned before. Like his parents, I find it difficult to adjust to the American life-style. When I visit family in Texas in the summertime, I want to leave after a month.

I find that sometimes the people are narrow-minded. For example, when I'm introduced, "This is Amy from Iran," some kids ask me about the camels, and they're joking, and that's fine. But some are serious and ask unbelievable questions about Iran. They could pick up a newspaper and read about the Shah—learn what's going on in the Middle East or anywhere.

Bob: When I started school in Barrington Hills and the students learned I was from Somalia, which is a primitive jungle society in Africa, they made narrow-minded statements. Some said, "Oh, you were with all those jungle bunnies." I had never heard the term *jungle bunny*. I didn't know what it meant.

That turned me off.

That first year in Barrington was sheer hell. There's no other word for it. It's the only time I've really lived in the States. And it was just misery. It was impossible. I knew nobody. I tried making friends, and everybody was so single-minded they couldn't think beyond themselves.

Barrington Hills is a ghetto of rich people, and it just depressed me. The limit of people's existence there is their brand-new Cadillacs.

Most kids at TAS have lived overseas before, and they know they can't go around with their noses in the air. They've got to accept life every day. They can't go around ordering the world their way and not letting anybody else into it.

Amy: I notice a lot of new students from the States who haven't been overseas before at TAS. I look at them, and I can just see so much of what I saw in the States. I know it's going to take them a while to adjust.

Today's Education: Cathy, when you came to TAS three years ago, you were a kid from the States who had never been overseas before. What kinds of problems did you have?

Cathy: It was really terrible for me, because I didn't know how to get out and make friends. For me just to say, "Hi, I'm Cathy. How are you doing?" was impossible. So the first year was pretty bad.

And my mom was really scared to get outside and even walk down the street. She was afraid she might get lost in the big, strange city of Tehran. And the language was a problem. A lot of people speak English here, however, and if you get desperate, you can communicate with your hands.

Amy: I can understand the fear of a big city, a big school, because almost all my life, I have gone to very small schools and lived in rural areas. In Venezuela in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, I think there were about 10 people in my classes. It's pretty terrifying coming here to TAS. To me, it's big.

Bob: In Somalia, the school had 24 people. But I got a fantastic education, because there were only one or two people in a grade, and so the teacher would spend hours with me. And I really learned much more there than I have in any other school.

When I left Somalia and went to middle school in Barrington, it was huge. And then I went into high school, which was even bigger.

And you know, when I first hit TAS, I thought, "Gee, it's nice to be in a small, homey school again." It's big in the sense that it has a lot of students, but it doesn't have the computerization my school in the States did. I was a computer number. I never signed my name to anything; I just wrote out my number.

Today's Education: What are the disadvantages of moving around so much—other than the problem of friends? For example, have you had academic problems as a result of your moves?

Amy: My grades have never been a problem. But my year in the States in seventh grade, I didn't learn anything. It was a whole year of repeat of work I had had in sixth grade in Venezuela.

My Spanish has suffered though. I used to speak it fluently, and after leaving South America, I've lost a lot of it.

Also I used to speak Italian a little, because I went to an Italian nursery school. I've lost it. Oh, yes, and I used to understand Arabic.

Bob: Moving around a lot has not caused a problem with schoolwork per se. But because the school in Barrington offered accelerated courses, enrolling in TAS was sort of like dropping in a lead bucket. However, I'm taking calculus and a good physiology class in which I'm doing a lot of independent work. So this school will let you pursue studies on your own to make up for not having advanced classes.

Cathy: One disadvantage of moving could be going to an area with poor schools. You really have to look for the right kind of school when you move. That should be a consideration.

Amy: Also, the system is different in every school. And if you're the type who is pretty set in your ways, you'll have problems.

Like my moving to Alice, Texas. It must sound silly, but they had a cafeteria there, and I didn't eat in it once the whole year I was there, because I was terrified of it. I had always brought my lunch to school, and we ate our lunches at our desks.

Then there was my locker—I never used it, because I couldn't get it open. I didn't know how to work

it, and no one explained how to me.

Cathy: Another disadvantage of moving is the need to make a name for yourself. If people don't know you, then chances are you won't get very far if, say, you want to run for a student government office.

Amy: You've got to make a good impression, and it's hard to make one, because you don't know what to do to impress people.

Today's Education: What can schools and teachers do to help overcome some of these problems?

Cathy: One of the things this school does to help students adjust is to have an orientation program. It's to help kids get used to the school and to living in Iran.

They also tried a newcomers' club, which I understand fell through, and they have a welcoming committee. Kids who are already familiar with the school show new ones around.

Bob: The first day here I felt like I was just pushed into classes. It was ding, the bell rang, and bang, you were in your classes, and it was terrifying.

Amy: In the middle school I went to in Alice, one of the girls showed me around, and we did become pretty close friends. So I was welcomed. It's just that—this sounds really terrible—I didn't have my choice of friends, and I wasn't used to that.

And those little things like the cafeteria and the locker—I know this seems ridiculous—but at the time, they were terrifying. I didn't know how to handle the situation, and there was no one for me to turn to.

If I could have talked with someone, that would have helped. As far as I knew though, none of my friends had any kind of relationship with the teachers, the nurse, or the principal.

Today's Education: What are the advantages of changing schools?

Bob: I'm not sure if the advantage is so much changing schools per se as it is changing environments. Every time I move, even though I've lived in the Middle East most of my life, I learn much more than I could get out of a course or a textbook.

Amy: Schools are not that important. If you move and learn to be flexible and to adapt, you are going to be prepared to live in the world.

Cathy: If I had stayed in the States, I'd turn out different than I'm going to turn out now. There's just no doubt about it.

If you stay in the same place, the same rut, you don't notice things, you have blinders on, because you're accustomed to the same things every day.

Bob: Those people in Barrington will live the same lives that their mothers and fathers did, worrying about the same things and having ulcers at 30.

Well, I may settle down in the States some day, but at least I've experienced things that I could never get out of a course, that I could never get out of a tour. I've witnessed the most primitive existence. I've lived through two revolutions: the six-day war in Libya and a rather violent revolution in Somalia where they had public executions all over the place.

Amy: I've seen a lot, too. Once I spent Christmas on the Sahara. And it is *not* just sand. It is completely fascinating. Just seeing something like that—the vastness, the quietness—is an experience. And very few people have that.

Today's Education: Do you think there would be advantages to just changing schools in the States?

Amy: If you couldn't get out of the States, that would be the next best thing, I guess.

Bob: You're going to get a variety of experiences every time you see something new. And in the States, there are a lot of opportunities.

In the States, however, you're seeing various sides of essentially the same thing, American culture, but when you live in different places overseas, you learn about vastly different cultures.

Amy: Of course, some people move to a place and stay two or three years, and they do not change, because they make no effort to get out, to learn anything. So living in a different place will not make the least dent in them.

Today's Education: Do any of you intend to come back to Iran some day?

Amy: Not necessarily. The Middle East is not my favorite place. I want to return to South America.

Cathy: I want to come back to Iran, because I want to see what things are going to look like in the future. But as far as liking it here enough to return and live, I'm not sure.

Bob: I like Iran less than any other country I've lived in, because Tehran is just a big, messy, polluted city.

I'd like to go overseas again and maybe go to Europe or the Far East or South America.

Today's Education: Last question: Where is home?

Bob: Wherever I am. Except right here, since I'm only here a year or so before I go to college in the States. I would say home is still Barrington, but I try to make my home wherever I am. I don't have a set base anywhere in the world.

Amy: Tehran is my home. There's nothing else I can say. We don't have a house in the States.

Cathy: I've never really thought about it until you just asked. When I'm here, Palestine, Texas, is home, and when I'm in the States, Tehran is home. I *don't* know. You kind of fazed me when you asked that.

I think I have two homes. After my family leaves, though, I won't consider Tehran home anymore. So my permanent home is Palestine, Texas, and my home that moves around is where my family is.

—Elizabeth E. Yeary, *assistant editor*, Today's Education.

Third-Culture Kids

By **RUTH HILL USEEM**
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The first day, the teacher stood me up in front of the class and said I was from Singapore. The kids at that school were tough. They started calling me Chinaman and harassing me. I didn't like being called that. I thought it was something bad to be. I did well in school, though. The teachers liked me, and the school was easy. The schools I went to overseas were tougher."

"When I was 16, I came from Japan to a small town in Indiana. I remember the first time I was out on a date—all we did was drive around to McDonald's and different places. The whole night! I never really got involved much in the school life. A lot of the kids were not planning on going to college, and so we didn't have much in common to talk about. I think I was pretty strange for them, too."

"I think part of the problem when I came to the States was I looked American but I did things that were not quite American. I had fun trying to be an American. It was an act in a way."

No, these are not the observations of new immigrants or foreign visitors. These are the reactions of American third-culture kids (TCK's) who have come "home" after living abroad as dependents of parents who are employed overseas. Although they have grown up *in* foreign countries, they are not integral parts *of* those countries. When they come to their country of citizenship (some for the first time), they do not feel at home because they do not know the lingo or expectations of others—especially those of their own age.

Where they feel most like themselves is in that interstitial culture, the third culture, which is created, shared, and carried by persons who are relating societies, or sections thereof, to each other.

Although some Americans were living outside the United States before World War II, the great burgeoning in numbers of Americans moving overseas began after the War. Now, there are approximately 300,000 school-age American children overseas. Their fathers are missionaries; visiting professors and teachers; representatives of the U.S. government (e.g., employees of the Department of Defense, the Department of State, etc.); employees of international and multinational corporations and financial institutions (e.g., Exxon, First National City Bank, Bell Helicopter); and American employees of international organizations such as the World Health Organization and UNICEF. These fathers are usually highly educated or highly skilled people who are forging the networks that intertwine and interrelate the peoples of the world. (The mothers may be employed overseas, but in most cases, the families have moved because of the fathers' employment.)

To be sure, Americans are not the only ones involved in third cultures. For example, Japanese businessmen work and live in the United States and in Southeast Asia, and diplomats from all countries represent their governments in posts all over the world. Their dependent children can be found in university communities, in the United Nations International School in New York, in the capitals and large cities of the world, and in some of the same overseas schools as American children. In this article, we shall limit our discussion to American TCK's.

The parents' sponsor in the overseas area is crucial in determining the specific part of the third culture in which the TCK's live, the kind of school they attend, the host nationals and third country nationals they will know, and the languages they will learn. These children even have labels that reflect their parents' sponsors—"Army brats," "MK's" (missionary kids), "biz kids," and most recently "oil kids."

Overseas, one of the first questions a TCK asks a new arrival is "What does your father do?" or "Who is your father with?" The answer helps to place young people socially. If, after returning stateside, a TCK asks such a question of a young person who has been reared here, the latter's reaction may be one of puzzlement or resentment. Unlike that of TCK's, the social life of young people reared here is not directly influenced by the father's employer.

TCK's are attached to the third culture through their parents' em-

ployers, who hold parents responsible for the behavior of their offspring. (If a dependent grossly misbehaves, he or she may be sent home, and the employer may reassign the father or terminate his employment.) Therefore, fathers take an active role in their children's lives and in making family decisions.

In one study of third-culture families, only 6 of 150 TCK's reported that their mothers always or usually made final decisions about family matters. (It should be remembered that almost all overseas American families have both parents present.) Fifty-three percent of Department of Defense dependents claimed that only their fathers made final decisions; 41 percent of children of missionaries said their fathers had the final say in family decisions; and the others involved in the study, including 75 percent of children of those representing the federal government, reported that both parents, and occasionally the children themselves, were involved in decision making.

Most children and youth overseas do not resent strict parental controls, because all of them attached to the same sponsor come under similar rules and, hence, there is community reinforcement. Besides, the overwhelming majority of TCK's (close to 90 percent) like, respect, and feel emotionally attached to their parents.

There are many reasons for this. The high mobility of third-culture families, who usually move every one, two, or four years, seems to have the effect of bringing individual family members closer together. They share the common experience of moving into unfamiliar territory and offer each other mutual support in the face of change and strangeness. Parents are often the only people with whom TCK's have a continuing relationship as they move from one location to another.

American families overseas spend more time together (unless the children are in boarding school) than do their stateside counterparts —and the time together is often not taken up with mundane aspects of living. Mothers are home managers rather than housewives, because they usually have servants to clean up the spilled milk, make the beds, cook the meals, and chauffeur the children. As one overseas mother said, "It's amazing how pleasant conversations with children can be when you are not frantically trying to get the supper on, answer the telephone, and nag the children to pick up their clothes."

The family provides one form of continuity for TCK's. The schools offer another.

There is a remarkable similarity among the approximately 600 schools attended by American children overseas. There are also great differences.

These include variations in the size of the student body (from 10 or 12 up to 6,000 or so); differences in sponsorship (e.g., Department of Defense schools, schools assisted by the Department of State, private and entrepreneurial schools, those sponsored by corporations, and those run by Catholic orders and Protestant churches); and widely different make-ups of student bodies (e.g., from Americans only to Americans in the minority).

All of these schools place a heavy emphasis upon academic performance, and the secondary schools are college-prep oriented. The curriculum resembles that of stateside schools with the same orientation, but the overseas schools usually offer enrichment courses in the local language and culture. Books and materials (which often don't arrive or come late) are generally imported from the United States.

The avowed purpose of most American-sponsored overseas schools has been to prepare American pupils for entering the mainstream of American society; stateside schools and colleges, to the extent to which they notice TCK's at all, have been concerned with their "problems of adjustment" to their peers. Neither the overseas nor the stateside schools have seen the TCK's as people who, as adults, will be following in their parents' footsteps and fulfilling mediating roles in the increasingly conflictive but interdependent global system. Nor do the schools see that solving some "problems of adjustment" offers TCK's valuable experience that can help prepare them for their future roles—which will probably be international.

One reason the schools lack appreciation for the great potentialities of these young people is that few educators have studied TCK's. In a bibliography on third-culture education that we compiled at the Institute for International Studies in Education, only 10 of the 50 dissertations listed concern TCK's—how they feel and perform, what they value, what they aspire to, and how they view the world and themselves in relation to it.

(Given the rather thin reeds on which to rest generalizations about these youth, and given the rapidity with which third cultures and national cultures change, we warn the readers that what we are reporting here is suggestive rather than definitive.)

One study of 150 college-enrolled TCK's of varying sponsorship and residence abroad (but all of whom had spent a minimum of one teen year overseas) produced a dramatic finding: Not one preferred to pursue a career exclusively in the United States. One-fourth named a specific place overseas where they would like to work (usually the location where they had lived during their teen years); 29 percent expressed interest in following an

overseas-based occupation but wanted to move from country to country; 25 percent wanted to be headquartered in the United States with periodic one- or two-year assignments abroad; and 12 percent wanted to be employed in the United States but to have opportunity for overseas job-related travel.

In order to qualify for careers in the third culture, these young people recognize that they must be well-educated and/or highly skilled. (There are few unskilled or even semiskilled third-culture occupations.) Thus they aspire, even when in secondary school, to attain college degrees, and many anticipate getting professional and advanced degrees or mastering highly specialized skills.

One important reason that TCK's want to work in an international occupation, whether pursued entirely or partially abroad, is that they feel most "at home" in third-culture networks. Only 7 percent report feeling "at home" with their peers in the United States, while 74 percent say they feel most comfortable with people who are internationally oriented and who have lived abroad.

Yet such preferences do not imply that a person is rootless or has made a "poor adjustment." As one TCK with Asian experience says, "I guess I could live anywhere and be comfortable. I have always liked to think I get along with all different people. I don't feel bothered by a lack of roots, and I don't think I have a lot of problems because of that."

To be sure, some TCK's have severe emotional problems that cannot be resolved without outside help —and some problems not even then. But the rate is probably not greater among these foreign-experienced youth than it is among the general American population of the same age.

The reported experiences of these youth suggest that they cope rather than adjust, and, as one student of multicultural persons describes them, they become both "a part of" and "apart from" whatever situation they are in. A TCK with Asian and African experience explains, "I find myself sitting back and objectively observing Americans and American society, occasionally smiling and occasionally shaking my head. I get along comfortably with both, but then again, there is a bit of me that remains apart."

Most third-culture kids are more familiar with foreign languages than are their stateside counterparts. One researcher reports that 92 percent of the TCK's she studied learn one or more foreign languages, mostly languages used in many parts of the world, such as Spanish, German, and French. Twenty-six percent claim knowledge of languages other than, or in addition to these, such as Yoruba, Hausa, Urdu, Kijita, Swahili, Amharic, Kalagan, Marathi, Kisukuma, Chinese, and Quiche. (In U.S. public secondary schools, less than .5 percent learn languages other than French, Spanish, German, and Latin.)

TCK's learn some languages in schools abroad and some in their homes or in the marketplaces of a foreign land. One-third of these youngsters are children of cross-cultural marriages and/or foreign-born parents, and they use a language other than English at home or when visiting relatives. Some pick up languages from the servants in the home or from playmates in the neighborhood.

Although most third-culture kids lose their proficiency in the foreign language when they return to an all-English-speaking environment, many pursue languages they have already learned, and some become literate in the languages they can speak. Few have emotional blockages about learning a new language —particularly if they perceive it as useful for the career they want to pursue in the future.

What can stateside teachers do to assist these youth when they return to the United States? Perhaps the best answer is for teachers to challenge them academically, both because this gives them continuity with their past and because this helps prepare them for the futures they desire.

Teachers should also try not to make these students' uniqueness a problem for them in school. Each TCK wants to be treated as an individual, not stereotyped as the "new student from Kuwait."

One TCK who lived in the Far East sums up her feelings about her experiences upon returning to the United States in this way: "I was made to feel like an odd person, a creature from another place—and I wasn't. I speak English, and I understand everything Americans say. My teacher and the people in the town where I was living didn't really see *me*—they just saw the difference." □

For Further Reading

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Cakes and Custard: Children's Rhymes Chosen by Brian Alderson. Illustrated by Helen Oxenbury. An amusing collection of English nursery rhymes —traditional, familiar, and less well-known—with droll illustrations, sharp-lined and softly crayoned. Morrow. $9.95.

Anno's Alphabet: An Adventure in Imagination. Mitsumasa Anno. There are no words in this clean, subtle ABC. Solid oak three-dimensional capital letters and objects beginning with each letter offer elegant paradoxes in perspective. Crowell. $6.95.

Tuck Everlasting. Natalie Babbitt. The Tucks, an ordinary family who have drunk from a hidden spring and gained unwanted immortality, face danger when their secret is discovered. A timeless story told in evocative prose. Farrar. $5.95.

The Desert Is Theirs. Byrd Baylor. Illustrated by Peter Parnall. Emphatic, crisp poetic text and line drawings swathed in brittle color reveal the land of the Papago Indians, who know its secrets and would live nowhere else. A Caldecott Honor Book. Scribner. $6.95.

The Terrible Thing That Happened at Our House. Marge Blaine. Pictures by John C. Wallner. The household seems topsy-turvy to an articulate little girl whose mother returns to work. A contemporary picture book, full of motion. Parents' Magazine Press. $4.95.

To the Green Mountains. Eleanor Cameron. Rural Ohio is the setting for this vivid, exacting novel. Young Kath Rule, a close observer of the complex and tragic adult world around her, longs for escape to her grandmother's home in Vermont. Dutton. $6.95.

Thirteen. Remy Charlip and Jerry Joyner. A unique presentation of 13 simultaneous happenings unfolds in 13 double-page spreads of detailed pastel watercolors. For reading forward or backward; for flipping through or pondering over. Parents' Magazine Press. $4.95.

The Grey King. Susan Cooper. Drawings by Michael Heslop. Will Stanton faces and overcomes the evil Grey King with the aid of a strange boy, a silver-eyed dog, and a golden harp. This suspenseful fantasy is the fourth in a five-book sequence based on Welsh mythology. 1976 Newbery Medal winner. A Margaret K. McElderry Book. Atheneum. $6.95.

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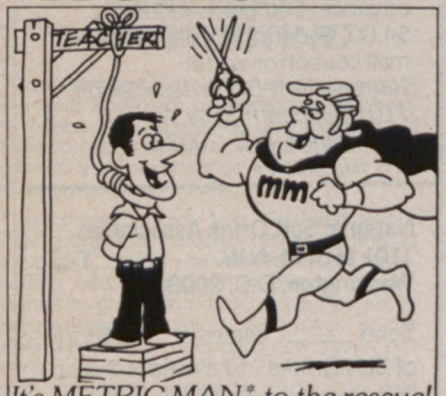

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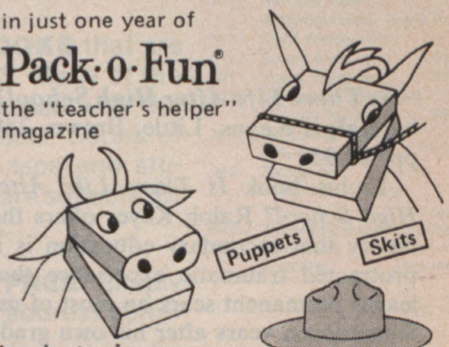

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 13

BOOKS

Is There Life After High School? by **Ralph Keyes.** Little, Brown. 240 pp. $7.95.

In his book *Is There Life After High School?* Ralph Keyes offers the theory that secondary education is a protracted traumatic experience that leaves permanent scars on most of us. Some dozen years after his own graduation from an Illinois high school, when a reasonable degree of literary success should have eradicated the psychological tremors of adolescence, Keyes still confesses to "shortness of breath when seeing an old classmate," as well as "panic upon receiving a reunion notice."

The author describes high school as a well-ordered social system comprised mainly of "innies" and "outies." The innies are the campus hotshots—the running backs, the cheerleaders, the student council president, or the guy with the '57 Chevy. The outies are the kids who play in the band, make Honor Society in their junior year, or ride bikes to school.

According to Keyes, after graduation, the innie, unable to come up with an encore, settles into a more prosaic life-style. The star quarterback manages to eke out an existence selling insurance or reading gas meters, while the glamorous captain of cheerleaders demonstrates her agility at the laundromat in washing clothes for her seven kids.

At least one innie, however, did manage an encore by becoming the first male superstar of pornographic films. Describing an interview in which the actor explicitly discussed his work, Keyes implies that his high school wrestling career may have prepared him for his current role.

The outie, on the other hand, labors furiously trying to get even for the rejections and humiliations suffered in high school. Phil Spector, the famed rock-and-roll entrepreneur, appeared at his tenth class reunion in a Rolls Royce with two bodyguards. Spector, who had been designated by informal consensus of his classmates as "least likely to succeed," was determined to show them up.

Some graduates are never able to rest until they have exorcised the lingering high school demons. Kurt Vonnegut, ridiculed by his football coach for being skinny, endured 30 years of anguish before he finally made the phone call that got the monkey off his back. "I want you to know," he told the coach, "that my body turned out all right."

Keyes maintains that "high school has become our most universal experience as Americans, one endured by over 90 percent of the population." Small wonder then that we can share with Dory Previn our envy of kids who wore braces, since only rich kids could afford them.

Reviewed by **Steve Brody,** *freelance writer, recently retired English teacher, and frequent contributor to* Today's Education.

Instead of Education: Ways To Help People Do Things Better by **John Holt.** Dutton. 250 pp. $8.95.

It's difficult to give John Holt a break, since he doesn't give one to teachers or to schools. In his latest book, the author of *How Children Fail* and *Freedom and Beyond* wastes little time before throwing down the gauntlet. The result, as Holt admits, will be that many readers will not finish the book and/or will dismiss his ideas as inconsequential.

Feeling that attempts to reform the present educational system are a waste of time, Holt prescribes a simple solution to our present scholastic ills: Do away with compulsory education as well as all ranking and labeling of students. Because compulsory, competitive schooling is mentally and physically cruel, the system should be abolished. Parents should have the right either to remove their children from school or to assist them in coping with the system through the use of such devices as teachers' manuals and calculators.

An advocate of "do-er" education, the author cites Boston's Beacon Hill Free School, the Evanston Learning Exchange, and Ny Lilleskole in Denmark as prototypes for a new educational system. With perhaps just a touch of bravado, Holt states that he is a "do-er" and that this is how he learned about education. Apparently it follows that what was good for John Holt must be good for all.

This, obviously, is an unsettling and disarming book. Holt makes many valid observations about an educational system that certainly could stand some improvement. Even those who vehemently disagree with his views (if they read far enough) will probably grudgingly concede some points to him. For example, many people would agree that a wealth of human resourcefulness and potential have thus far gone untapped. Unfortunately, however, the disillusionment, anger, and frustration of a man who has apparently had numerous negative learning and teaching experiences cloud the work and dissipate much of its potential value.

Instead of Education will provide a fresh supply of brickbats for those intent on chipping away at the staid structure of traditional education. The parent, teacher, or concerned citizen in search of real solutions to educational maladies must look elsewhere.

Reviewed by **Robert Walch,** *chairman of the English Department, Carmel (California) High School.*

Power to the Teacher by **Marshall O. Donley, Jr.** Indiana University Press in association with Phi Delta Kappa. 242 pp. $10.95; paper, $3.95.

In 1802 Thomas Peugh, a teacher in an Ohio frontier settlement, refused to unlock his school and hold class until the school committee agreed to give him at least one afternoon a month off. Tom didn't know it, but he probably was the first teacher militant. He has company now: more than 2 million teachers across the nation, working together in organizations that openly carry the banner of teacher militancy.

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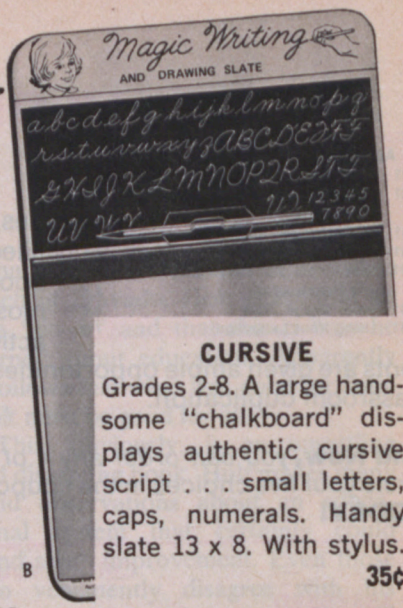

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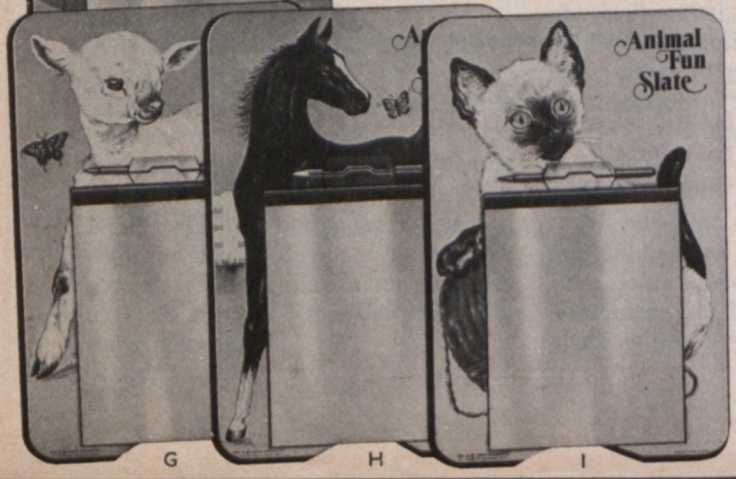

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teacher movement in recent years as editor of the *NEA Reporter*. In his readable history, he says the basic causes of teacher militancy include rebellion against the economic injustice that teachers suffered for more than a century; the growing professionalism and self-esteem of today's teachers, who are educated, confident, better paid, and essential to society; and the growth in size and complexity of school systems, which has resulted in bureaucratization within the schools. Teachers needed their own militant organizations to help them deal with the faceless bureaucracy, and their organizations have changed accordingly (witness the NEA). Further, there are mechanisms available—negotiated agreements, for example—that enable teachers to bargain for their demands. Moreover, teachers today are willing to hire legal counsel and to go to court to fight for their goals.

There are lesser causes, too. The social climate of the 60's and 70's has been ripe for action by teachers; the American economy has been strong and able to support demands for higher salaries; laws in some states allow public employees the right to negotiate, if not to strike; and the public image of the teacher has been high.

What of the future? Some Donley predictions:

Within a decade or less, nearly all the nation's more than 2 million public school teachers will be organized, as will at least half of the 637,000 college faculty members. Only private school teachers will remain unorganized.

Teacher militancy will increase.

There will be fewer strikes because, as negotiated means for handling problems are developed, the chances for peaceful solution of difficulties will increase.

Teacher morale will be high, enhanced by higher salaries and by the formal admission of teachers or their representatives to the decision-making process.

Lawsuits on behalf of teachers will continue.

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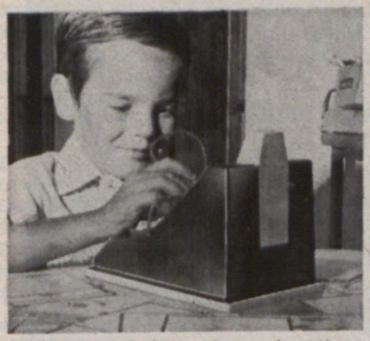

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The children of two feuding African families learn a lesson in reconciliation. "Good discussion material. A good addition for the older elementary child's library."—*The Disciple*
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into focus and should be at the elbow of every teacher-leader in America.

Reviewed by **Russell P. Burbank,** *editor of* The Massachusetts Teacher *and vice-president/president-elect of the Educational Press Association of America.*

Teacher Education in the United States: The Responsibility Gap, A Report by the Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers. University of Nebraska Press. 224 pp. $10; paper, $2.95.

In its review of the overall quality of undergraduate teacher preparation, the Study Commission (which was established by the U.S. Office of Education in 1972) presents some disturbing evidence. The status of teacher education, as demonstrated by the financial support it receives, is very low. "Teacher education in 1972-73 received $1,300 to $1,500 per [full-time equivalent student] contrasted with expenditures considerably higher in other professional areas, particularly in the junior and senior years."

Another disturbing finding is that most teacher education faculty members regard either a broad liberal education for undergraduates or the training of graduate students as a higher priority than the professional preparation of undergraduates.

Also, 65 percent of the 1970 teachers in training went to institutions which, according to Gourman and College Ratio quality ratings, were "low quality" institutions. Since the Commission states that there is clear evidence that teachers from Gourman "high quality" institutions produce better results with children than those from institutions with lower Gourman ratings, this finding is also highly disturbing.

The real test of the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs lies in our country's classrooms, and, predictably, the Commission found that in communities where cultural values differ markedly from the schools' middle-class values, students feel alienated and passively resist "education." Even in communities with middle-class values, such as the Boston suburb described by a Harvard study team (whose report the Commission quotes), students have not been encouraged to become critical and

imaginative thinkers or to assume responsibility for their own learning and have, as a consequence, become passive and uninvolved.

What else can be expected, the Commission contends, from a school system that has become more and more centralized and has a management hierarchy that makes the administrators "bosses" and the teachers "hands."

Teaching has become lifeless as well as standardized, according to the Study Commission, because of the following factors: the proliferation of universal tests and of rules for curriculum, for accreditation, and for certification and the control of American education by national educational and professional societies and by the white middle-class majority.

The Commission makes specific recommendations for the improvement of teacher preparation. Some of these, in my opinion, are quite sound; according to the introduction written by the Assistant Secretary of HEW for Education, they have already been partially implemented.

On the other hand, some of the Commission's recommendations are highly controversial and merit serious and extensive debate before any attempts to implement them are made. These include those that would deprofessionalize teacher education, separate eligibility for federal funds from accreditation, endorse skill-specific voucher systems, and install teacher education programs only after a community has defined a program.

It is this reviewer's hope that everyone in any way involved in teacher preparation will read this provocative book.

Reviewed by **Rosina Espinoza de Ready,** *remedial reading teacher, Espanola (New Mexico) Elementary School; chairperson, Committee on Standards, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.*

Mrs. Ready notes that the opinions expressed are her own and do not necessarily represent those of the Committee or the Council.

Correction: Harvard University Press tells us that Harlan Lane's *The Wild Boy of Aveyron* (reviewed here in March-April 1976) does include a bibliography, which was absent from the advance proof on which the review was based.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 44

CLASSROOM TIPS

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Hilltop High School, Chula Vista, California.

The pendulum seems to be swinging toward vocational education in opposition to general education's goal of development of the whole individual. In rhythm with this pendulum swing, here are some vocation-oriented observations and ideas.

Television's *Sixty Minutes* recently interviewed graduating collegians about the success of their education from a financial standpoint. Were their degrees going to get them jobs and/or more money than would have been possible without the degrees? The consensus was "No!"

The conclusion to be inferred from *Sixty Minutes* was that education must be more job-oriented.

At any rate, educators are, as usual, gallantly trying to match supply with demand. In a new emphasis on careers, some schools have set up career centers and have hired full- or part-time career and vocational counselors. Many schools have increased course offerings in the business, mechanical, and craft departments.

Community resource persons are increasingly important. One creative writing class has heard about writing as a profession from an ad writer, a magazine editor, a "true story" writer, a sports journalist, and a free lancer.

The U.S. Office of Education is publishing a new book titled *Career Education*. It contains many specific examples, including that of a bank president's lending expertise to a high school economics class, an insurance salesman's analyzing the insurance industry for a social studies class, and a Dallas time-clock company's lending two time clocks to a school so that students could experience punching in and out.

With the aid of local service clubs, one school arranged "shadow" experience—individual students spent a school day "shadowing" a person at work in the vocation the student was considering.

Conversely, a mortician who had complained about teachers' being overpaid put in a day in a classroom as a resource person and complained no more.

Terrill Gormly of the English Department at Wheaton High School in Wheaton, Maryland, teaches a two-hour elective called Career Exploration. The principal activity for class members is a weekly 10 hours of interning with various local firms and industries. Students change intern sites and kinds of occupations frequently.

A high school in Richfield, Minnesota, offers a similar course during summer school. Students visit industries and businesses half a day at a time. Summer advantages are that buses are easily obtainable and that participants do not miss their regular academic work.

In Carroll High School in Carroll, Iowa, humanities instructor Jim Knott has had his students collecting data for three years about local industry. The data will be included in a statewide survey sponsored by the Iowa Chamber of Commerce. Knott's students also work in two-hour time blocks "buddying" with employees in their choice of occupation. Grades are based on a resulting paper titled "What I Learned from What I Did."

Charles Browne, career coordinator at Mission High School, San Francisco, points out that there are more than 20,000 different kinds of jobs in the United States today. To help students zero in on at least one of them, Mr. Browne and other career personnel set up a three-point program:

1. *Identifying a Career.* Students begin by taking the Career Interest Survey developed by the Boy Scouts of America, Explorers Division. This simple, free, computerized test comes up with three career choices for each student, thereby narrowing his or her need for subsequent library research, counseling, and additional tests.

2. *Verifying a Career Choice.* Resource persons in the identified areas speak to the students. (The talks are videotaped and are also used in industrial arts and business classes.) Students are invited to visit the speakers at their places of work.

3. *Placement.* Students are eventually placed in part-time jobs in the field designated by all the tests, research, counseling, etc. Incidentally, the jobs are not just *there!* They must be beaten from the bushes by an intensive campaign of radio, television, newspaper, and word-of-mouth publicity.

Students may give the legal profession a try by using the idea of "historical trials" suggested by Fred A. Zielke of Lakeview High School in St. Clair Shores, Michigan.

Mr. Zielke's social studies classes choose a personage and lodge a charge against him. For example, President Harry Truman may be charged with creating a dangerous precedent by fighting a "no win" war in Korea.

Students may perform during the "trial" as prosecuting or defense attorneys or members of their staffs, as the judge, or (the balance of the class) as jury. Lawyers and judge must research Truman's actions and the issue. The jury studies mimeographed summaries of Truman's political life.

As the case is heard, the judge rules on the propriety of the arguments. After all the evidence is in, the jury decides on the guilt or innocence of the accused and then submits a majority opinion citing the most persuasive arguments.

Anyone on the nostalgia kick knows that nothing could be more practical today than learning about buying and selling antiques. For years, Richard Altman, social studies teacher of Pequea Valley Intermediate School in Pennsylvania, took eighth graders on field trips to nearby Williamsburg, Virginia, and was unhappy at watching them rush unseeing from room to room.

Now he prepares them ahead of

time. First he passes out sheets containing descriptions and illustrations of from four to six furniture features for each period to be studied. He then shows Williamsburg slides that further identify furniture types and details and he lends each student a catalog of reproductions of Williamsburg furniture. After studying it, the students tell why the pictured pieces are William and Mary, Queen Anne, Chippendale, Hepplewhite, or transitional in style, pointing out each one's identifying characteristics.

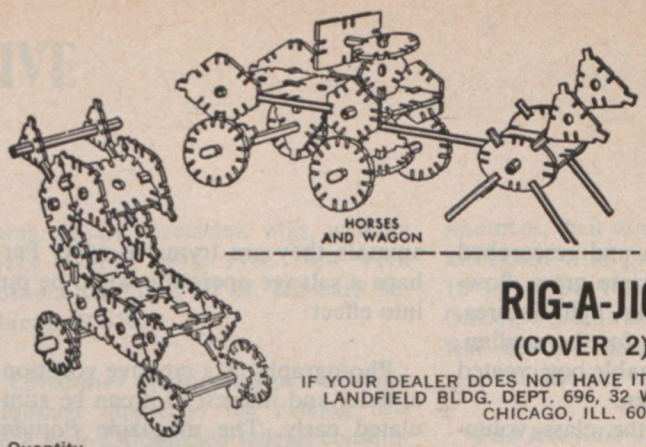
Next, the class holds a make-believe auction of the catalog's contents. Mr. Altman auctions off the first piece. Then the students take turns as auctioneers. The results are often unrealistic—a rare Hepplewhite desk going for $50, perhaps, and a more ordinary chair for $5,000. But the important results are some appreciation of artisanship, of the business of museums, and of the vocational aspects of antiques—including auctioneering.

The study of literature can be given a vocational slant. The new book mentioned above, *Career Education,* cites Ms. Annie Hale of the Senior High School in Aliceville, Alabama, who assigns a reading list that is multicultural in nature, with particular attention to minority persons who have "made it." This career emphasis, besides making reading more palatable for some, seems to inspire Ms. Hale's students to increased effort in learning actual skills.

Julie Jantzi, social studies teacher in Milford (Nebraska) Junior High School, is Nebraska Teacher of the Year for 1976. *Career Education* relates how she used a local city problem as a focal point for vocationally oriented activities.

The problem: whether or not to build a median down Milford's main street. Mrs. Jantzi's pupils wrote letters expressing opinions to city officials, who then came to class to answer questions and discuss opinions. Later, pupils attended the public hearings on the issue. They drew maps of

(Continued on page 120B)



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the proposed median and researched to determine appropriate grass, flowers, shrubs, trees, rocks, light fixtures, trash cans, and so on for the median. One formerly unreachable boy created the prizewinning design.

After discussion, the class volunteered to assist in the landscaping and suggested that the city and retired residents work together to maintain the area.

Career education is ongoing even in elementary schools. Classes in one small town make yearly trips to a nearby bakery, there to marvel at the muscles of the employees and the gigantic pots in which they pummel and twist the dough. Many a dairy has troops of visiting children trying to get the connection between the white stuff coursing through glass and metal tubes and the cows, those awkward, fearsome creatures munching in muddy pastures. The angle used to be how bread and milk were produced. Now an added emphasis is occupational.

Today there are many jobs, paid and volunteer, in the battle to aid nature in its survival struggle. Wildlife rescue centers often send speakers to schools. The speakers illustrate with slides, films, anecdotes, and live animals—a hawk, for instance, whose wing has been shot away— the damage done by shooting, trapping, rock throwing, oil slicks, fishline discarding.

Because children are interested in nature, they take these realistic presentations to heart and become better citizens. Some may eventually go into forestry, veterinary medicine, zoology, or biology as a result of such early nudging. (The Sierra Club and Audubon Society are among groups to call for information.)

Incidentally, any school that worries about the recyclable garbage to be found in its waste cans after pupils have eaten dessert and thrown the rest of their lunches away should be glad to know that most wildlife rescue centers, run by volunteers on nothing a year, are eager to have such food for the animals they are trying to save. Perhaps a salvage operation could be put into effect.

Photography is a creative vocational field, and interest in it can be stimulated early. The magazine *Popular Photography* has an Educational Information Division (Ziff-Davis Publishing Co., One Park Ave., New York 10016) that will be happy to send material on request.

One easy project they suggest is sungrams. These are made by placing one or more opaque objects on a piece of printing-out-paper (P.O.P.) and then exposing the arrangement to sun or bright daylight. The changes, visible as they occur, produce silhouettes of the objects on the paper within three to six minutes.

After the objects are removed, the unexposed portion of the paper will also develop. To avoid this, quickly treat the print for five minutes in ordinary photographic fixing bath. Then wash the print in running water for 10 minutes. The images will now be fairly permanent. Drain each print completely to remove excess water and place it *face up* on paper toweling to dry overnight.

A source of P.O.P. is Eastman Kodak. Ask for Kodak Studio Proof F (not R)—whatever that means—at any camera shop.

Popular Photography shows sungrams made with toy soldiers, toy horses (battle scenes), a dandelion puff, a group of keys, a group of safety pins, dried grasses—all very beautiful and decorative.

The magazine has many other ideas, such as making color slides without a camera. They are fine for present satisfaction and as future career stimuli.

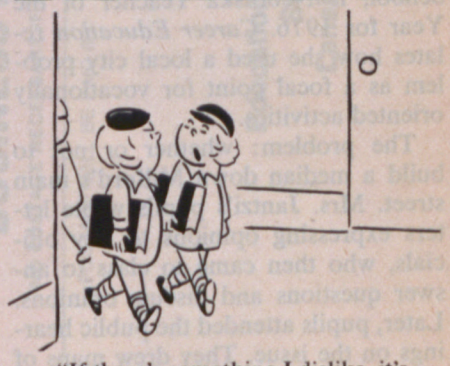
Quilt making is an old vocation/avocation being revived. Wanting to celebrate this year's special date and also show respect for the past, Sharon Cowart and her sixth grade at St. Gregory School, Plantation, Florida, made a bicentennial quilt.

Each of the 38 boys and girls, and Mrs. Cowart, too, embroidered a scene representing part of the American heritage on a 13-inch muslin square. Segments of the quilt represent the American flag, the Liberty Bell, the eagle emblem, etc. After completing the charming and colorful quilt, the class presented it to Plantation's Mayor Veltri and the City Hall.

Play can be vocationally oriented, especially when the students build the play equipment. At PACER Elementary School in Kansas City, Missouri, Francis Wardle and 30 helpers, ages six to 12, built an adventure playground. They made a large platform structure, a 30-foot-long slide, a 60-foot-long pulley run, swings, tunnels, a teeter-totter, and a tire net.

For inspiration and instructions, Mr. Wardle suggests *Building with Tires,* published by Early Childhood Education Study of Advisory for Open Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts, and Paul Hogan's *Playgrounds for Free: The Utilization of Used and Surplus Materials in Playground Construction.*

In the process of building their particular playground, the Kansas City children learned to mix concrete, read a level, nail, cut wire cable, and measure with a metric rule. They learned, too, that a pulley works better after it is oiled. They also may have discovered that they hated banging their thumbs and getting gritty and cold from wet cement—or that they enjoyed such manual activities and just might want to earn their livelihood in this very fashion. □



"If there's something I dislike, it's writing about something I like."

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Arts and Crafts

Nature Crafts. Pack-O-Fun publication No. 19. More than 150 uses for twigs, leaves, gourds, seeds, corn husks, etc. Illustrated. 1976. 34 pp. $1.50. Clapper Publishing Co., Inc., Dept. 12376, Park Ridge, IL 60068.

Audiovisual Aids

How To (Tape) Record Better Grades. Tips on the best way to use tape recorders at all school levels. 1975. 17 pp. Free. Columbia Magnetics, Booklet Offer, 51 W. 52nd St., New York 10019.

Career Education

Careers for a Changing World. A program to help young people choose productive and satisfying careers. Includes a full-color documentary film, accompanied by a teacher's guide, of people at work or discussing their career choices and of students airing their hopes and doubts about the future; a careers overview pamphlet; and a series of booklets on the occupational categories of health care, the arts, transportation, hospitality and recreation, and business and office (booklets for other categories are being prepared). 1976. The film is available free, on loan, to schools and community groups. Single copies of the booklets are free; additional copies (minimum orders of 10), 10¢ each. Careers, New York Life Insurance Co., Box 51, Madison Square Station, New York 10010.

Taking Things Apart and Putting Things Together. Explains what chemistry is, what chemists do, and what some of their contributions have been. 1976. 118 pp. $1.75. Special Issue Sales, American Chemical Society, 1155 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Catalogs and Bibliographies

Bicentennial Catalog No. B76. Illustrates costumes for a full cast of colonial characters, such as George and Martha Washington, Thomas Jefferson, John and Abigail Adams, Ben Franklin, and Betsy Ross, as well as minutemen, drummers, redcoats, Indians, Pilgrims, children. Features such accessories as tricorn hats, ruffles, pantalets, powder horns, square spectacles, wigs, walking sticks, swords. 1976. Free. New York Costume Co., Inc., 27 W. Hubbard St., Chicago 60610.

Consumer Information Catalog. Published quarterly, the catalog lists more than 250 selected federal consumer publications. Free. Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Racism and Sexism Resource Center for Educators. Lists consciousness-raising materials for students, teachers, librarians. 1976. 14 pp. Free. Council on Interracial Books for Children (CIBC) Resource Center, 1841 Broadway, Rm. 300, New York 10023.

Selected Print and Nonprint Resources in Speech Communication: An Annotated Bibliography K-12. Covers argumentation and forensics, drama and theater, film study, group discussion, inter- and intrapersonal communication, language development and semantics, mass media communication, nonverbal communication, oral interpretation of literature, public speaking, radio/TV production, and teacher education. 1976. 69 pp. $2.25. Speech Communication Assn., 5205 Leesburg Pike, Falls Church, VA 22041.

UNESCO Publications. Describes UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) publications on education, mass communication, life sciences, earth and marine sciences, ecology, engineering, social sciences, art and music, library science, and more. 1976. 78 pp. Free. Unipub, Box 433, Murray Hill Station, New York 10016.

Ecology

Endangered Animals. No. 760. Eight giant full-color posters with background information for the teacher, suggested activities for students, and lists of resource materials. 1976. $4.95. The Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.

The Natural Gas Story. Provides background material on our natural gas resources, their usage rate, and problems associated with price regulation. 1975. 18 pp. Free. Publications Distribution Officer, Federal Energy Administration, Rm. 6500, Federal Building, Washington, DC 20461.

The Recycler in America. An illustrated booklet that tells the story of recycling from 1776 to the present. 1975. 16 pp. Free. Natl. Assn. of Recycling Industries, Inc., 330 Madison Ave., New York 10017.

Economics

The American Economic System . . . and your part in it. Prepared by the Advertising Council and the U.S. Dept. of Commerce in cooperation with the U.S. Dept. of Labor, this four-color illustrated-by-Schulz ("Peanuts") booklet describes our economic system in basic, simple, interesting terms. 1976. 24 pp. Single copies free. Economics, Pueblo, CO 81009.

American Enterprise. A mini-course in economics produced with nine of the country's leading economists as consultants. In this series of five films on America's economic history, we see our country grow over a 200-year period from the viewpoints of a farmer, a scientist, a businessman, a schoolteacher, and a government employee. The films are accompanied by comprehensive kits, one for each segment of the program: Land, People, Innovation, Organization, and Government. Each kit contains a 16-page illustrated guide that gives a synopsis of the film; a core discussion of economics; a review of major economic concepts in the film; a glossary of terms; lists of related readings, discussion questions, and activities that might broaden economic understanding; a set of study/exercise ditto masters; and a large four-color poster. 1976. Funded by Phillips Petroleum Company and available to high school and college audiences free, on loan, from Modern Talking Picture Service, 2323 New Hyde Park Rd., New Hyde Park, NY 11040.

Unemployment: the problem we

(Continued on page 122)

can solve. Discusses the meaning of unemployment, who is unemployed, the extent of the problem, and the related problem of inflation. Surveys methods tried in the past to provide jobs, and looks at some other countries' policies for keeping unemployment at a minimum. 1976. 28 pp. 35¢ each; quantity discounts. Pamphlet No. 534. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave., S., New York 10016.

English and Literature

Games Teens Play with Adolescent Literature. Easily constructed games for reviewing material, presenting new material, and drill. Includes literature, vocabulary, composition, and television games. 1975. 70 pp. $3. Kay McFarland, Shippensburg Collegiate Press, Shippensburg State College, Shippensburg, PA 17257.

Health and Safety

Cigarette Smoking: Take It or Leave It. Filmstrip kit containing a color/sound filmstrip, disc or audiocassette, four transparencies, teacher's guide, and folder for the student to take home. Designed to give upper elementary and junior high schoolers vital information on cigarette smoking and to stimulate thought about the physical, psychological, and social aspects of smoking. Free. Write the Public Education Dept. of your state or local unit of the American Cancer Society.

From the Ground Up: Building a Grass Roots Food Policy. Covers issues ranging from developing effective nutrition education programs to repealing the state sales tax on food. 1976. 137 pp. $2.50. Center for Science in the Public Interest, 1757 S St., N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

How Weather and Climate Affect You. Explores the effects that clouds, winds, storms, humidity, barometric pressure, heat, cold, and other variables may have on health, behavior, efficiency, and disposition. Includes guidelines on how to weather-condition yourself. 1976. 28 pp. 35¢ each; quantity discounts. Pamphlet No. 533. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave., S., New York 10016.

Human Vision and Its Improvement. A packet consisting of a unit booklet for students, a wall poster of the eye, a postage-paid card for reserving a film on the eye entitled "The Incredible Seeing Machine," assorted reference material, and an illustrated teacher's guide. Explains the anatomy, physiology, and optics of the eye as well as common vision problems. 1976. 24 pp. Free. Bausch & Lomb, Optics Center, 1400 N. Goodman St., Rochester, NY 14602.

Nutrition Labeling, Tools for Its Use. Designed to help people use the nutrition information on food labels to check and improve their diets. Includes a table showing amounts of food energy (calories), protein, vitamins, and minerals supplied by 900 foods (including foods that are not labeled); a table showing the amounts of nutrients recommended for men, women, and children of different ages; and lists of foods that are important sources of specific nutrients. 1975. 57 pp. $1.15. Stock No. 001-000-03385-9. Cat. No. A 1.75:382. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Plain Talk About Child Abuse. A reprint of six articles from a *Denver Post* series on child abuse and neglect that exposes the myths and stereotypes about parents who abuse their children, interprets the nature and dimensions of the problems, and offers suggestions for treatment of causes and effects. 1973. 24 pp. 35¢. American Humane Assn., Children's Division, P.O. Box 1266, Denver 80201.

Sprocket Man. An imaginative comic book for teenagers or college students that gives bicycle safety and security rules and many tips on how to operate a bicycle safely in urban areas. 1975. 26 pp. 25¢. Urban Bikeway Design Collaborative, 635 C St., N.E., Washington, DC 20002.

Stuttering: What It Is and What To Do About It. A concise overview of stuttering and its management. 1975. 101 pp. $2.75. Professional Educators Publications, Inc., P.O. Box 80728, Lincoln, NE 68501.

Media Programs

Media Programs: District and School. Provides guidelines and recommendations for media programs and essential resources, and describes programs that respond to both district and school objectives. Released jointly by the Assn. for Educational Communications and Technology and the American Assn. of School Librarians. 1975. 136 pp. $2.95. American Library Assn., 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611.

Reading

Reading and the Bilingual Child. Examines the techniques and materials needed for working with children in bilingual situations. Offers practical teaching strategies. 1976. 41 pp. $3 ($2 for IRA members). IRA Order No. 220. Order Dept., Intl. Reading Assn., 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

Science and Math

Natural Science Investigations. No. 394. More than 40 self-directing activities to stimulate interest in science through investigations of weather, geology, plants, and animals. 1976. 48 pp. $1.95. The Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.

Social Relationships

Resolving Classroom Conflict. Suggestions, insights, and experiences that can help teachers foster an atmosphere of cooperation in their classrooms. 1975. $2.50. Professional Educators Publications, Inc., P.O. Box 80728, Lincoln, NE 68501.

What Can I Be from A to Z? A pleasant little four-color, picture/alphabet book for kindergarten and first grade levels whose accent is on common courtesy, good manners, and the cultivation of earned self-esteem. Accompanied by an excellent teachers' guide. 1975. 63 pp. Text, $2; guide, 50¢ (free with every 30 books purchased). National Youth Courtesy Foundation, Inc., 1516 Peachtree St., N.W., Atlanta, GA 30309. □

AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

The following 16mm sound/color films are recommended by William J. Cuttill (with the assistance of Beverly Teach), Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, as representative of those available for use in exploring social and emotional attitudes on aging. Further information concerning these films and their availability can be obtained from the producers/distributors indicated by the numbers in parentheses.

Never Give Up. 30 min. Gives insight into the life of Imogen Cunningham as she displays samples of her photographic work and reveals her philosophy of living and those experiences that make tomorrow a welcome challenge for her. Grades 7-12. (6)

The Transformation of Mabel Wells. 15 min. Mabel Wells's crotchety ways had distorted her perception of life and her relationships with her neighbors. But an accident changes all that. Grades K-12. (2)

"At 99" A Portrait of Louise Tandy Murch. 25 min. Portrays Mrs. Murch sharing her attitude of "thinking positive" with institutionalized elderly persons. Grades 7-12. (1)

Valley of the Old Ones. 23 min. Investigates the phenomenon of human longevity in the isolated valley of Vilcabamba, Ecuador. Grades 10-12. (7)

One Time Around. 16 min. A young man works and visits with several elderly persons as they talk about aging, life, and death. Grades 7-12. (5)

Old, Black and Alive. 28 min. Documents the perceptions of six elderly Blacks as they cope with aging. Contrasts each one's feelings toward people and "tomorrow." Grades 7-12. (4)

Nahanni. 19 min. Traces the absorbing experiences of an old man's dangerous journey up Canada's Nahanni River in search of a lost gold mine. Grades 6-12. (3)

Producers or distributors: (1) Doubleday Multimedia, 1370 Reynolds Ave., Santa Ana, CA 92705. (2) Guidance Associates, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017. (3) Contemporary/McGraw-Hill Films, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020. (4) New Film Co., Inc., 331 Newbury St., Boston, MA 02115. (5) Paramount Oxford Films, 5451 Marathon St., Hollywood, CA 90038. (6) Phoenix Films, Inc., 470 Park Ave. South, New York, NY 10016. (7) Time-Life Films, 401 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60611. □

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Later, he repeated that comment.

Janie: What were Ernest's personal tastes in such things as writers, clothing, food, cars, and movies?

Mary H.: Ernest had lots of favorite writers—Tolstoi, Twain, Balzac, and Shakespeare. He wasn't much on clothing, though he was sensitive to texture. That's something that's not been noted about him. He especially loved texture in food, particularly Chinese food. And he loved spicy food, too. He loved convertibles, always had one. He saw few movies, though I do remember how much he liked *Around the World in 80 Days*.

Class: Are you planning to release any more of his unpublished writing?

Mary H.: Maybe. But it must always be up to his best standards. We still are considering *Dangerous Summer*, a long article about bullfighting that originally appeared in *Life*, and a long and amorphous book called *Garden of Eden*.

As we sat there, assembling our notes and heading into the next Hemingway paper, a kind of euphoria settled over the room. This had been a telephone call to remember for the rest of our lives. □

"That's the best I can do for you right now. Come back when you've learned the rest of the alphabet."

ity, relieved only by a few bright spots of limited success. Such a review does indeed underscore the entrenched power of the status quo. Yet, excessive gloom unduly obscures the significant fallout that remains after the pilot projects have been abandoned and forgotten.

Sesame Street lives. It might never have happened without the 1950's experiments in educational television. Even the airborne TV experiment may some day reappear via satellite.

Teaching machines are dead, but their concept is perpetuated by a new generation of programmed self-correcting books that do enable youngsters to learn the three R's at their own pace.

The extreme turn to open education as an "alternative school" may no longer be in the forefront of reform, but the virtues of more informal teaching, with greater attention to children's individual needs, have been given new recognition and impetus. □

This article is excerpted from "Where Have All the Innovations Gone?" by Fred M. Hechinger, *The New York Times,* November 16, 1975. © 1975 by the New York Times Company. Reprinted by permission. Mr. Hechinger is coauthor with his wife Grace of *Growing Up in America,* published last year by McGraw-Hill.

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John Ryor, NEA President; Terry Herndon, NEA Executive Director.

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For further information about NEA membership, write to NEA Membership Records, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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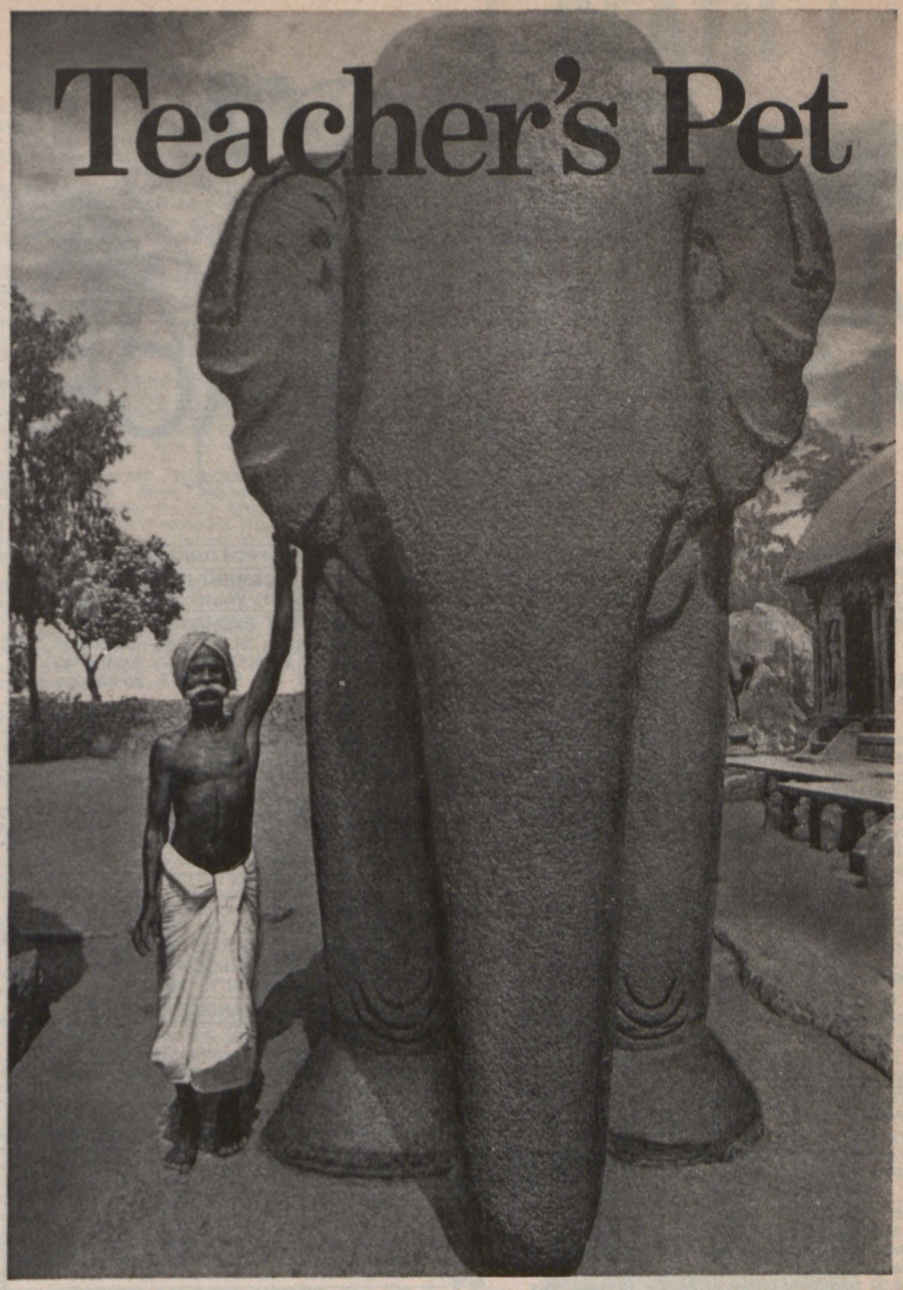

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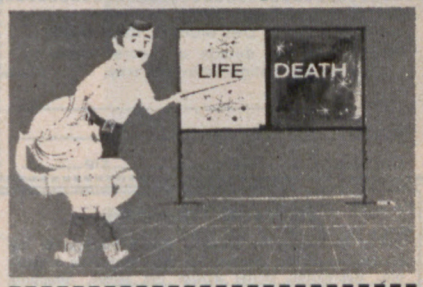

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